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THE TRUE MISSION OF THE TEACHER.

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[Continued.]

Lessons of Self-Culture.

The initiation of the pupil into the great work of self-culture, by forming habits of earnest, persevering, and self-reliant exertion, is an important part of the teacher's mission. Labor is the law of life, without which man, with all his high endowments, is but a dull mass of inanity. Intellect is evolved by earnest toil; sentiment and affection are elaborated through suffering, sighs, and tears; moral principle struggles into life through conflicts, temptations, and trials.

Is Nature inimical to man, when her winters freeze and her summers scorch him, when her furious storms and fierce lightnings terrify, and her savage beasts destroy? Not in hostility does she thus array herself against man, but only to stimulate him to put forth his latent energies and overcome these antagonisms. Weak and cowering, he quails before her mighty forces; but God bids him arise and subdue the earth and elements; and while he obeys, lo! God helps him, not by rebuking the raging blast, or draining the pestilential marsh, or exterminating the wild beast, but by working in him and through him, ever imparting to him genius and ability, according to his own exertions. Thus only, man achieves the conquest of Nature, and reduces her to servitude. Thus only,

he makes the elements do his bidding; and, Apollo-like, instals himself a king and priest in Nature's temple.

The same great principles of life and action are constantly reasserting themselves in society. By the alternations of joy and sorrow, health and disease, liberty and oppression, want and abundance, God develops the human soul, — ever evolving energy, genius, and ability, in proportion as man exerts himself; never conferring on him power, until he has first demonstrated himself worthy of dominion, by his own indomitable energy and persevering industry.

The heroes and men of genius, in all ages, have not been more indebted to what Nature has done for them, than to what they have done for themselves. By their almost superhuman exertion, close application, and indefatigable toil, Julius Cæsar and Napoleon asserted their supremacy in the conquest of nations, and made themselves arbiters of the world. By earnest, incessant mental effort, Newton and Cuvier raised themselves from obscurity to an eminence more honorable than that of kings. "The kingdom of Heaven" also "suffereth violence, and the violent take it by force." By self-conquest, and the invincible might of faith and love, Daniel and Luther laid hold of omnipotence, and attained a higher supremacy than that of potentates.

The necessity of obtaining an education by his own effort often proves to be the greatest blessing to an indigent youth, by throwing him back upon his own resources, and compelling him to put forth all his own energies. By intense application and persevering diligence, this son of toil and poverty is often better educated than the ease-loving son of luxury and wealth, though surrounded by every facility, and assisted by the best instructors. Thus self-culture, while it brings out talent, develops also enterprise and perseverance, and so generates true power.

The whole school system is but a preparatory course of training for the great normal school of life, where friends, relatives, and promiscuous society are the teachers, and an all-wise Providence and a vigilant conscience, the disciplinarians; and the whole of life is but a period of self-education for the life to come. The teacher who fulfils her mission, desires her pupils not only to do well in school, but to do well through life; and strives to make them feel the necessity of their own earnest exertion and coöperation, if they would acquire an education that will prepare them for the great work of self-culture. Not by mere *memoriter* recitations, but by patient, consecutive thought, is this great end to be attained; not by a parrot-like

learning of words, but by acquiring and arranging ideas, so as to be available for ready use. She will strive to make them feel their own responsibility; that the best teacher cannot educate them, if they will not coöperate with her, and educate themselves; and that every acquisition, truly valuable and enduring, must be obtained by their own efforts.

Discipline.

Another important branch of the teacher's mission is Discipline. A successful teacher should hold such a supremacy over her pupils as will enable her to sway their minds, direct their energies, and, if necessary, subdue their wills. Shall she maintain this supremacy by arbitrary authority, or by rewards and penalties, or by moral suasion? Shall she control her pupils by the coercion of an indomitable will, or by the magnetic influence of her presence, or by the more subtle agency of moral power, or by teaching them the great lesson of self-control?

In surveying our schools, we observe a great variety of form, face, and manner. The countenance of one is radiant with love and joy, while that of another is like a dark, lowering cloud. One looks gross, and another cunning; some are prepossessing, others repellent. Some are tender and susceptible; others are cold and resisting. How can we control such a diversity of character, and bring so many discordant elements into harmony with each other and ourselves, except by discriminating individual character, and adapting our mode of discipline to the peculiar moral endowments and degree of development? Genuine love and uniform kindness will convince most of our pupils that we seek their highest welfare and happiness; and will thus conciliate their regard, and secure their confidence and cheerful coöperation. And since a school ever reflects the character of its teacher, perhaps we most successfully promote good order, by a strict adherence to system in all our own arrangements. Thus our pupils, while they imitate our example, are convinced that order is a principle and law of our life, which it would be vain for them to oppose.

In some schools, all things glide on smoothly, without any apparent effort, the teacher being the great polar power toward which all the scholars turn with love and respect; while, like a powerful magnet, she draws them all into her own sphere, and infuses into them her own life, spirit, and will.

But this delightful mode of discipline is a rare attainment. Most teachers must govern their pupils by addressing some predominant principle. One has a well-trained conscience, and may be easily governed by appeals to its decisions; and another, by his teacher's love and approbation; while another,

of a lower development, can be moved only by the promise of rewards, or the dread of penalties. But, if all these methods fail, then the pupil should be compelled to obedience by absolute authority. Order must be maintained; and, since despotism is preferable to anarchy, it may be well for the teacher to convince her school, when circumstances require, that there is a strong reserved force of determined resolution, that can and will exact perfect obedience, and that any opposition on their part is the height of folly.

As conscience is but slightly developed in young children, it may sometimes be necessary to excite their emulation by a system of rewards, but never until an appeal to higher motives has proved unsuccessful; for well-doing, prompted by hope of gain, or fear of loss, springs only from self-interest, and is destitute of moral excellence. The teacher who realizes that the best discipline is self-discipline, will teach her pupils the great lesson of self-control, which has in it a strong moral power to control others; and will guide them, as much as possible, by appealing to their sense of right and justice, and thus accustom them to the strong self-governing influence of conscious moral obligation, — the necessity of acting from a principle of duty, and not from selfishness or caprice.

School discipline should ever have reference to the child's ultimate advantage; and that only is good discipline, which develops good characters for subsequent life. Arbitrary will and ready policy may enforce an external obedience; while a system of rewards, exciting emulation, may stimulate many to high intellectual achievements. The school may be very popular as a model for good order and fine recitations; yet, the child's moral nature being scarcely recognized, he quits school without having learned the first lesson of self-control. How could he have learned it, since he has ever been controlled by the eye or voice of his teacher? Having never been taught self-government, he needs, on arriving at manhood, the stringent limitations of law and the police. A system of rewards has stimulated him to do right in school; and now, because no tangible reward is continually held before him in the great school of life, he ceases to do right. The love of right, as a motive to action, has been superseded by the love of promotion or gain; and he naturally grows to maturity selfish and sordid, the higher life repressed, or stifled out of existence, by the lower.

God raised man above the guidance of instinct, to be guided by his reason and conscience. Liberty is therefore with him an inherent right, and the independent, liberty-loving Saxon

ever makes it his duty to assert that right. Let us then train our pupils with reference to their innate hostility to arbitrary law, by preparing them to be a law to themselves; and not weaken their self-governing power, and forestall the habit of self-control, by too many external restraints and incentives.

[To be continued.]

ON TEACHING AS A PROFESSION.

NO. II.

To return to our question, — may teaching become a profession? Is it desirable that it should? And how may the end be attained? — To the first question but one brief answer is needed. The establishment of normal schools and teachers' institutes, and the "graded" and "union" schools already existing in every State in the Union, insure the determination of the community, that adequate provision shall be made for the training and support of teachers permanently devoted to their appropriate business. To the question, Is it desirable that the vocation of teaching should become a regular profession? the teacher prefers to give a rather indirect answer. He bids you go and ask the lawyer what advantage arises from a regular admission to the bar, or the physician what advantage from a medical diploma; reminding you that there was a time when a clerical education was thought a sufficient preparation for the practice of law, and when the humble occupation of barber was deemed an adequate training for the practice of surgery.

The mere naming of a man's calling in life is, doubtless, a small affair. But not so the certainty of his qualification for it, in point of knowledge and skill. When we entrust the care of our health, or that of our family, to a regularly educated physician, we have the assurance of the intelligent, the skilful, the reliable of his brethren, that he is adequate to the charge. He bears the tangible document which attests the fact. When we seat ourselves with our family in our accustomed pew, to listen to the words of sacred instruction, we do so in the confidence that we are addressed by one whom the license of his brethren and their public sanction have pronounced a workman who rightly divides the word of truth. When we employ a lawyer to secure us our just rights, we rely on him as one whom the instructors of his profession, and its eminent members, have formally admitted, as competent to the fulfilling of its duties. The teacher is the only workman

who has to submit to the very questionable decision of men of other callings than his own, as regards his fitness to do its work.

In a mere worldly point of view, the teacher's daily labors may seem but a species of intellectual drudgery, which any one can perform, and which is entitled to no peculiar respect. Such it may appear to the outside observer. But to him who searches into the springs and modes of mental action, who sees the high moral, artistic, and poetic power which the true teacher puts forth, — to him who thinks of the human mind and its laws as the clearest manifestation of infinite wisdom, and its progressive development as the surest pledge, next to express revelation, of its immortality ; to such a spectator, the humble daily task of the faithful teacher who understands and loves his pupils and his work, appears what it truly is, — a continuous coöperation with divine benignity, an unfolding of the grandest, the most wonderful, the most intelligent, the most powerful, of all the beings of our earthly sphere.

The art of teaching then becomes the noblest of all arts ; and, in aiding to construct the fabric of human character, the teacher is not a mere mechanical artisan, — he is the highest of artists. He works in the light of poetry and philosophy and of all science. The science of mind itself is his peculiar domain, extending from the remotest metaphysical truth, through the laws of reason and intelligence, the action of imagination and the conditions of feeling, the phenomena of emotion and of utterance, the principles and the facts of language, to the knowledge of man's organic frame, and its relations to life and health, in the formation of mental and moral habit. But what are all these considerations to that of the great fact, that, next to the mother, the teacher, if true to his trust, aids in stamping those first impressions of God and duty which extend to an immortal life ?

Nor are such relations of the teacher's office those exclusively of the higher range and advanced stages of human culture ; far from it ; they are those, most peculiarly, of the guardians of the first steps of the progressive mind. If any human being engaged in the duties of instruction needs the highest, the largest, the profoundest knowledge which science can afford, it is the primary teacher : it is she who adds her endeavors to those of the mother to reveal God's universe to the dawning mind, amid its wondering faith and small "experience," and trusting reliance on sympathy and love, its penetrating curiosity, its singleness of eye and truthfulness of heart, its insatiable thirst for knowledge, its open soul and generous

aspirings, and yet its feebleness and helplessness, its waywardness and wilfulness, its petty outbreaks and rebellions, its ingenuous contrition and grateful sense of pardon, — all asking for the guidance of a genial, serene, reflective, prudent, skilful, patient, loving, watchful guardianship.

The day, it is to be hoped, is forever gone by, when the teacher's duties could be summed up in holding the book and hearing lessons. The wider light now shed on all science enlarges the view and the sphere of education. The general mind of our day demands not only an enlarged sphere of knowledge on the part of the teacher, but a personal skill in modes of culture, a living efficacy in instruction, a thorough understanding of the mind itself, and the sway of a powerful influence over it; in one word, a thorough knowledge and a perfect skill in all that concerns the peculiar business of a successful living teacher. But how are these to be had without appropriate training? and how is the community to be furnished with the certainty that such training has been attained, but by the faithful and rigorous examination of aspirants and candidates, conducted and reported by those whose professional experience has qualified them to judge, and on whose verdict, from their own professional position, the community may safely rely?

The examination of teachers, in relation to professional qualifications, by *teachers themselves*, is plainly the only reliable course in regard to the business of teaching, just as is the case in what are now exclusively called "the professions;" and in no respect does the formation of a State Association of Teachers betoken more substantial benefit to the State, to the general advancement of education, or to teachers as such, than in the facility which it affords for at once converting the business of teaching into a veritable profession.

W. R.

OBSERVE, RECORD, COMMUNICATE.

In our last number we suggested a plan for increasing the usefulness of the "Teacher" by making its pages the vehicle for the communication of the detailed experiences and observations of different members of our profession, imitating therein the usage of other professions, in all of which an organ for the dissemination of such information is considered indispensable. We propose to describe somewhat more particularly the course and method which we think such observations should take.

It is pretty well agreed that teaching, when it is anything more than a blind mechanical routine, is the process of developing and training the various faculties of the human mind. We will here take it for granted, that some approximation to a practical classification of those faculties has been agreed upon, for otherwise we should be led into the boundless field of metaphysical discussion. We will suppose, throwing out materialists, that teachers are agreed that man is a spiritual being, and, avoiding all theological discussion, that the great purposes and ends of life are better than anywhere else described in the few plain and practical precepts of Jesus.

The problem then presented to the teacher seems to be, By what methods and processes, and by the use of what, among a great variety of instrumentalities, can he best develop and strengthen and provide the minds of his charge for a life of the highest and most successful usefulness? We put aside the various modifications which sectarian views may make in the ideal of a true life. With these the public teacher is expressly enjoined by the laws to have nothing to do. It will be the work of the religious teachers of the various sects to engraft these by special teaching upon the foundation laid by the secular teacher. For him, the ideal upon which he is to form his charge, must be based upon those great precepts of morality, which all sects calling themselves Christian accept and profess to follow, and which seem to lie at the foundation of our human nature, written there by the hand of God. In accordance with these, he is to develop the immature faculties of his pupils into strength and practical usefulness; and thus limited, the problem seems at first an easy one. His task is not to twist and mould those faculties according to particular patterns, but to form them for practical usefulness in the great world of living men, as it lies before him in his own age and his own country. He has not even at first to consider the modifications which the divergence of different trades and professions will afterwards require.

But, even in its simplest form, the question is far from being easy of solution. We might say that, amid all the advances which knowledge has made in this era of enlightenment, this question of the true methods of developing the youthful mind has had, of all important problems, the least attention given it, and is farthest from being solved. We do not mean to say that no youthful minds are rightly developed; but we do mean that, even where teachers are eminently successful, it is by a happy instinctive tact, rather than by conscious and methodized processes, and that a *Science* of Training, based on definite principles, and by which all can profit, has hardly yet

begun to be thought of. And we mean to say further, that we believe that even the most successful teachers can look back to many blunders committed in ignorance, to much labor spent in vain; and that there is scarcely any one, whether teacher or not, who would not have had much of his own education other than it was.

Now how are these evils ever to be remedied, how is education ever to be rescued from its present chaotic state, save by building up, on the safe and firm ground of observation and experiment, a true Science and Art of Teaching? And to effect this, the concurrence of no less than the whole body of working teachers will be necessary, as truly as the coöperation of all naturalists for founding a science of Natural History, or of all travellers for the exploration of the whole globe.

We call, then, upon all teachers to give us the results of their experiences. A clear and simple record of the exact doings of every school in the Commonwealth for a single day would, perhaps, make a more valuable work on education than has ever yet been written. It would certainly be more valuable than three quarters of existing educational literature; for, made up as that is to so great an extent of feeble commonplaces and vague generalities, the greater part of it is worth just nothing at all. We want no more of it, but, in its stead, plain and simple records of what the teacher does, and what he or she observes, and of the doubts and questions that arise in various minds. Each of us wants to know the various methods that others use, and to hear of their success or failure. Each of us wants to hear of the difficult cases that have arisen in others' practice, and of the modes of treatment, successful or unsuccessful, that were adopted. We need to compare the ideals we set before ourselves, the aims with which we are working. The experience of our elder brethren is needed to correct the rashness of youth; perhaps the freshness of youth will correct the routine habits of age. We need free, frank, and fair intercommunication respecting the swarm of school books that darken the land in multitudes that no man can number. Moreover, we need to discuss our position in the community, and the rights and duties that grow out of it.

This can all be done, if teachers will only think they can write. And surely the teacher who thinks, must be capable of putting his or her thoughts intelligibly upon paper. It is not fine writing we want, or classical elegance of style. For this we must go to writers by profession. In the pressure of our practical duties, we cannot be expected to cultivate the graces of style; and it is no part of the duties of our periodical to

offer a model of fine writing. But any one who has a clear idea to express, can usually find, without much difficulty, clear and simple words in which to express it. And this is what we want. The facts are the main thing. The dress they may be clothed in is of secondary consequence.

May we not hope, then, from the teachers, who are the supporters of this paper, that hereafter, if they have not already this habit, they will keep some sort of record of their school labors; and that, as questions arise for discussion in these pages, or as doubts and queries occur in their own minds, they will acquire the habit of communicating freely with us, undeterred by the simplicity or homeliness of either facts or style? In a science of observation, and more especially in one whose facts are the fleeting and delicate movements of an immaterial mind, the simplest observations are important. And may we not further hope that, among all the readers of the "Teacher," there are some already familiarized with habits of such observation and inquiry, who will help give an interest to our pages, by furnishing examples of such communications?

W. P. A.

MORAL LESSONS.

It is but a few years since the following incident was reported among the items of marine disaster, and copied from paper to paper, through most parts of the Union.

One of our southern steam packets was wrecked off the coast of Virginia, and many of the passengers lost their lives. Some, however, succeeded in supporting themselves on floating spars and other objects, till wind and current carried them ashore. But the shore was so distant from the scene of the catastrophe, and many of the floating articles were so small in size, and so incompetent to support those who had laid hold of them, that not a few of the unfortunate passengers, after a succession of arduous but unavailing struggles, sunk at last in the devouring sea.

During this scene of death-conflict, two human beings came in sight of each other; one in the vigor, and freshness, and buoyancy of early manhood, the other a grey-haired veteran of noble mien, but whose commanding figure had lost its former force and pliancy. Both were buffeting the waves with the fierce resolve of men struggling for life, and for all that makes man's heart cling to it even in the death-grapple. The

younger of the two had at stake a sister, now the light of another than the paternal home, — a being whose transcendent personal beauty was but an emblem of the gentle, and loving, and noble spirit which had been the guiding star of his youth, and with which his own had become inwoven by an impassioned attachment. His father was no more. But his home yet contained a beloved mother, and two noble brothers, with whom he vied in the duty of cherishing their surviving parent. Thoughts of his happy home, and of the sister whom he loved so devotedly, nerved his arm, as he dashed aside the surges that threatened to engulf him, but against which his youth and strength, aided by the support of a floating settee, which he had been so fortunate as to seize, enabled him to maintain a hopeful struggle.

Near him was battling, single-handed, with the terrible element, the elder sufferer. As the younger drifted yet nearer to him, he recognized in the noble form and aspect to which he was approaching, a distinguished servant of the State and of the Union, who had once lived in affluence as well as merited honor, but who had suffered in his advancing years a reverse of fortune which had reduced him to absolute poverty, and, in addition, the loss of a worthy son-in-law, who had left at his premature death a widow and a numerous family, wholly dependent on the father and grandfather, their only relative. The charge had fallen on a generous and a willing heart; and the veteran in life's warfare had set out anew on his career of duty, which happily was already promising ultimate success.

Recognizing the honored individual, and recalling the circumstances of his life, seeing at the same time the disadvantage at which he was wrestling with the hostile element, the young man seems to have deliberately thought of the comparative value of the two lives at stake in the dreadful struggle; and, dear as life was to himself, to have resolved, in a spirit of the sublimest self-sacrifice, to forego the advantage he possessed in favor of his fellow-sufferer. For, shouting, "Here, take it, sir; *your life is more valuable than mine!*" he pushed the settee from him towards the elderly gentleman; and, knowing its insufficiency to bear the weight of two, resolutely swam off in a different direction, turning a deaf ear to the remonstrances and cries of him whom he was thus rescuing, and who, with a heart as true and as warm as that of his junior, was unwilling to accept the proffered advantage, till he found it would otherwise be lost to both.

The younger swimmer had chosen his part deliberately, knowing that the shore was too distant, and the waves too

high, to allow any reasonable hope of escape from an early grave in the deep sea. No human eye witnessed the calm upward look with which he went down in the mighty waters. It was only known that he did not reach the shore. But the tale of his unselfish deed was told by his grateful survivor, and has made the heart of many a youth throb with a new moral life.

The individual who communicates the above example of disinterestedness, for the perusal of his fellow teachers, hopes it may serve to confirm what he suggested in a former number, — the importance of giving in every school a brief daily moral lesson, in the form of historical, biographical, or personal anecdote, adapted to the age and capacity of the pupils. The young man referred to in the preceding narrative attended, in his boyhood, a school in which such forms of moral instruction were introduced daily ; and his teacher remembers the tears which fell on the page of the young student's Anabasis, which happened to be lying open before him on the day when the following incident was the subject of the moral lesson.

A few years previous to the abolition of slavery in the West India Islands, an English planter, who had, in the language of the day, " made his fortune," sold his plantation and his slaves, and took passage for himself and two sons, — the only surviving members of his family, — and for one faithful servant, an African, whom he wished to reward by giving him his freedom in England, according to the earnest desire of the devoted negro himself; as he declared himself unwilling ever to be separated from the family.

A few days after leaving the harbor, the ship sprung a leak, which no exertions could stop. The captain, finding further endeavors useless, gave permission to the larger number of the crew, under command of the mate, to take possession of the long boat. The smaller boat he reserved for the passengers and a few of the sailors, together with himself. The requisite preparations were hastily made. But the vessel beginning to sink before they were completed, the boats were instantly pushed off, and, as it happened, in opposite directions. In the confusion of the moment, the boys misunderstood their father's direction ; and, while he was below, endeavoring to seize some articles of value which he wished to save, they got into the long boat, instead of the captain's.

The father, on coming on deck, was barely in season to hear the captain say, " Your boys are safe in the long boat, which is already shoved off, on the other side of the ship. We shall overhaul them directly. Slip down this rope into my boat, — quick ! we have not a moment to lose." The father and the

captain had barely time to take their places in the boat, and the men to shove off, when the vessel went down. They had rowed but a short distance, when they heard from the occupants of the long boat the dreadful cry, "We are sinking!" In a moment more, the boat, — the defective condition of which had not been perceived, — went down, together with many of the crew. Some, however, who could swim were soon observed floating about on the surface, and among these, the two boys with their faithful African.

Knowing the ungovernable feelings of men in danger of death and tempted by the prospect of an opportunity of escape, the captain was unwilling to expose his small boat to the risk of being upset by the struggles of those who were now swimming for life. He knew, also, that his boat could but admit two or three more persons than it already held. Notwithstanding, therefore, the father's agonies of entreaty, he persisted in ordering his men to row away from the spot where the long boat had gone down, although not to row so fast as to prevent the rescue of a few, who, by superior strength and speed, might draw ahead of the rest, and thus be picked up without risk.

Only a short time had elapsed, when one or two of the best swimmers were far enough in advance of the others to render it safe to receive them into the boat. Among these was the faithful African, with his master's youngest son clinging to his shoulders. To place the boy in the arms of the overjoyed father, and dart after the elder boy, who was manfully but almost hopelessly swimming for the boat, was but the work of a moment. The strength and swiftness of the negro enabled him in a few moments more, to place the exhausted boy beside his brother; while the grateful father's tears showered on the head of the devoted servant, who was now holding by one hand upon the gunwale of the boat.

"In, quickly!" shouted the eager parent to the expectant domestic. "Not for the world!" screamed the agitated captain. "One other man's weight will sink us. We cannot take him in. He must not come in. I am responsible for you all. We may be saved as we are; we cannot with him aboard."

The African was indeed a man of uncommon stature and weight. He had foreseen the possibility of the fate which now awaited him. He had not even attempted to climb over the gunwale, but only held to it, with an anxious look for one moment into the captain's face The father and the sons had already buried theirs in their hands; and the hot tears were streaming through their fingers, — the father convulsively sobbing, and the boys crying aloud.

Their devoted servant and happy deliverer let go his hold; and with a shout of mingling love and gladness, rather than any tone of sorrow, exclaimed, as his affectionate eye turned to their averted faces, "Good-bye, and God bless you, kind master! Good-bye, young masters! God bless you both!" He then raised his clasped hands over his head, and allowed himself quietly to sink to the unfathomed depths below. W. R.

DEFECTS IN SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

THE school-houses of Massachusetts constitute no unimportant item, even in the inventory of her material wealth. In the School Returns of 1854, an estimate was obtained from the several towns of the value of their school-houses. And *worthless* and *worse than worthless* as many of these structures are, still there were so many valuable school buildings in the Commonwealth, that the aggregate rose to the great sum of more than *four millions and a half* of dollars; or, to give the precise result of the addition, of $4,576,457.26. The rapidity with which the State is increasing her investments in this admirable species of stock, which never withholds a dividend, will appear from a comparison of this amount with that which was obtained from the returns of 1848, viz., $2,552,213. The valuation had nearly doubled in the short space of six years.

And, through the zeal and liberality of the people in this good work, the rate of increase is becoming more and more rapid from year to year. The amount expended for school-houses in the year 1848 was, according to Mr. Mann's estimate, about $200,000. But the amount returned as expended for the same object in the year 1853, five years after, was $402,609.90. Similar returns are requested the present year, and will undoubtedly show a large increase above the latter sum. To our personal knowledge, a large number of spacious, costly, and beautiful school edifices were erected in 1855.

The people of Massachusetts are now expending some half million of dollars annually in the preparation of more appropriate places for the education of their children. Where such interests are at stake, we cannot doubt the wisdom of this generous expenditure. It even now falls vastly short of the importance of the object. It still fails to meet, through a large part of the State, the imperative need which there is of improvement in this respect.

During the year which is now opening, a larger sum will probably be devoted to the erection and repair of edifices for our public schools, than in any preceding year. Of what vast consequence it is, that this money should be expended, not only with a generous spirit, but in the wisest possible manner. No one could believe, without careful personal examination, how many and how great defects there are, even in expensive school-houses recently erected. With all the great improvements that are making in school architecture, the remarks of Dr. Sears in his seventeenth Report have not lost their pertinency.

"The large number of new school-houses which, in different towns, it was proposed to build, — occasioned in part by the establishment of high schools, and the grading of the lower schools, causes which will continue to operate with increased effect for many years to come, — and the frequency of calls from School Committees, to aid them by suggesting the most convenient and approved plans, have led to an examination of the houses now in use; and the result of such examination is the discovery of great deficiencies, even in those school-houses which have been recently erected. It not unfrequently happens, that a building committee will consult with some house carpenter nearest at hand, and then sit down and sketch an original plan of a school-house, without any previous experience, and without the slightest idea that there is any great liability to mistake."

Dr. Sears then states that, "in a matter of such importance as the construction of school-houses, it was thought proper to aim at the highest degree of perfection;" and that, therefore, Mr. Leach, who was then acting as an Agent of the Board of Education, was instructed to give especial attention to this subject. The occurrence of the names of these two gentlemen in one sentence, reminds us forcibly of how much educational wealth in noble men devoted to the cause of popular instruction, a sister State has lately robbed us. We who are deprived of their aid and counsel, have need to increase our exertions, and thus "to see to it," according to the old Roman phrase, "that the Republic receive no detriment."

Mr. Leach, who speaks from an extent, minuteness, and fidelity of personal examination into the condition of our school-houses, such as no other person can claim, thus communicates in simple, concise, but expressive language, the results of his observations; and his words ought to be reprinted every year, till the evils which he so plainly exposes have become obsolete.

"Since the commencement of my agency I have examined more than one thousand school-houses, and have noticed the following defects in their location and construction. I have found very many

school-houses situated in the highways, but a few feet from the travelled road, and without any yard for the scholars to play in. Some I have found in wet and marshy places, which were often surrounded by standing water. Some were quite near ponds or streams, which was the cause of very great annoyance, both in summer and winter. Some were near stores and public places of resort, which were frequently visited during the intermission. Some were near workshops, or manufactories, or railroads, or depots, exposing the children to interruption and accidents. Some were on eminences, surrounded by dangerous declivities.

"Not one in fifty have I found with suitable back-yards, well fenced, and with decent water-closets. But very few have two entrances, one for each sex. In consequence of this arrangement, teachers are compelled to sacrifice thirty minutes each day, one-twelfth of the whole school time, or commit the gross impropriety of sending out boys and girls into the same yard at the same time. Very few houses are constructed with any regard to external beauty or internal convenience. Many are quite too small, not affording, in some instances, more than forty or fifty cubic feet to each pupil, instead of one hundred and fifty, which is regarded as the minimum. Very many are not more than eight feet in height, instead of eleven or twelve feet.

"A very common and serious defect is the want of good blackboards, placed at the proper height. In very many cases, instead of a blackboard in the rear of the teacher's desk, there is a window to admit light directly in the face of the pupils. In many houses of recent construction, there are no blackboards except in the rear of the pupils, so that they were obliged to stand or sit on the tops of the desks to witness any illustration from the teacher. Where such arrangements existed, I found that but very little use was made of the blackboard by the teacher.

"Very many schools I have found badly lighted, some admitting too much light, and others too little, and quite often the light was admitted directly in the faces of the pupils. In consequence of too little light, the pupils become short-sighted, and contract a stooping posture by bringing the head near the book. The cases are quite numerous where pupils have become short-sighted and round-shouldered, by being compelled to study in an improper posture. By an excess of light, the sight of pupils has been very much impaired, and, in some cases, entirely lost.

"In a large majority of cases, the stairs leading to the upper rooms have been badly constructed, endangering the lives and limbs of pupils. Very many cases of serious injury I have found, which have resulted from this cause. But very few houses are furnished with large closets, or book-cases, to preserve maps, globes, and books of reference. But few are provided with a well, pump, and sink, a very necessary appendage to every good school. In but very few instances have there been any attempts to beautify the grounds by setting out trees, shrubbery, &c. Globes, clocks, thermometers, mats and scrapers, have not been introduced extensively into the country schools. In school districts in the country, where the pupils live some

distance from the school, there is seldom any provision for the pupils who wish to stop at noon, or who come in the morning before the time of commencing the school.

"Many houses have been built, and some recently, with large rooms, containing from one hundred to two hundred pupils each. I have made it a particular point of inquiry to ascertain the advantages and disadvantages of large rooms, as compared with small ones. I have consulted more than one hundred experienced teachers on this subject, and have found but four or five who do not much prefer small rooms to large ones.

"By your particular direction, I have given considerable attention to the subject of ventilation. In all my examinations, I have found but few houses well ventilated. In a large majority of cases, there are no means of ventilating but by opening the windows and doors. And where attempts have been made, it has been but imperfectly accomplished. The ventilating tubes have almost invariably been too small."

Shall these defects, some of them so glaring, gross, and revolting, be allowed to remain? Shall body, mind, and heart, through our neglect, indifference, or parsimony, continue to be poisoned by their malaria? Shall not at least the new school-houses of eighteen hundred and fifty-six be free from them?

LAWS OF SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

The subject of School Architecture is eminently appropriate to the pages of the "Teacher." It is one in which teachers and pupils, parents and children are all interested. Its leading principles and important details should therefore be studied by every one who is to instruct in our schools, or to have a vote or influence (and who has not the latter?) in determining their accomodations.

What is requsite to constitute a good school-house? What must be its properties and characteristics? In the first place, it must have the appropriate conveniences for study, recitation, and good order, on the part of the pupils; and for instruction, care, and good discipline, on the part of the teacher. Secondly, it must have every provision and arrangement required for the physical comfort of the pupils during the time which they must spend in or about the school-house; and this time, it should be kept in mind, is, with many pupils, no less a portion of the day than seven or eight continuous hours. These provisions and arrangements, if the prime end of education is not to be sacrificed, must be so made as to be in perfect consistence with propriety and delicacy, — with propriety the most exact,

and delicacy the most scrupulous. Thirdly, the house must have room for visitors, especially on occasions of school examinations or exhibitions; and in our rural districts, if we respect immemorial usage, must be an appropriate place for educational and other meetings. Fourthly, it must have a healthy, pleasant location, readily accessible, without being exposed to the dust and noise of a thronged thoroughfare; and attractive grounds, sufficiently ample for the sports of childhood, without giving annoyance to neighbors or travellers, or perilling the limbs and lives of young children in the street.

In what precise way these requisites of a good school-house can be best secured in each particular case, must be determined by the town or district, or by the duly authorized building committee. Still, amid the great variety of adaptations to differing circumstances, there are some general principles or rules of school architecture, which ought never to be lost sight of. We beg leave to commend the most important of these to the attention of our readers, and to their careful observance, as opportunity may, from time to time, arise.

1. Every school-house for young scholars, should have as many separate school-rooms, as there are regular teachers; except as the principal of a large school may have an assistant to take charge of his particular room, while he is visiting other rooms. The military movements of successive classes, forward and backward, between the main room and recitation rooms, however skilfully they may be ordered by a nice tactician, nevertheless cause disturbance and loss of time. Discipline becomes more difficult, and almost of necessity more summary and severe, according as its subjects are aggregated in large masses. In the case of the young, it is of great importance, that the teacher to whom they recite, should be with them while they are studying their lessons. This teacher only will know how to give the requisite directions, to answer questions, and to apportion assistance, watchfulness, and stimulus to the several members of the class. From the higher character of the instruction demanded from the principal, an especial loss arises, when his time is occupied and his mind distracted, in the midst of important exercises, by the necessity of taking care of the immediate pupils of other teachers. Other arguments might be added, but it will occupy less room to refer to the very decisive statement of Mr. Leach, quoted on p. 165, to the important letter of Dr. Cartée accompanying this statement in the Seventeenth Report of the Board of Education, to the satisfactory experience of the Boston Grammar Schools, and to the plan adopted in the more recently constructed school-houses of Philadelphia.

2. In schools where most of the studying is done in the school-room, each scholar should have a separate desk. A double desk is a screen for much quiet play; it causes interference between the occupants, and sometimes serious altercation; it is a powerful tempter to whispering and other communications; it leads to much unobserved assistance of one pupil by another; it renders those exercises in which writing is employed, and which are now so extensively and profitably introduced in our best schools, less valuable from the difficulty of a scholar's *not seeing* what his desk-mate is writing, and the tendency, with many, to copy this either verbally or virtually. The difficulty of government in school is materially enhanced, and the benefit of study still more diminished, by the use of double instead of single desks. The difference in expense between single and double desks (in the Boston furniture for grammar schools, about $1.25 to a pupil), is too small a sum to be taken into consideration, in the permanent furnishing of a school-room. The single desks occupy a little more room, but do not give to each pupil more space than is desirable for the sake of good air and on other accounts. *

* "Single desks," says Mr. Leach (17th Report, p. 85), "are generally to be preferred to double ones. The whole expense for room and desks is about twenty per cent more." If a proper width be assigned to the aisles between the double desks, for these, as used by two rows of scholars, need to be wider than those between single desks, the difference will be still less.

In the work on School Architecture, by that able and faithful laborer in the cause of Public Schools, the Hon. T. H. Burrowes, just published by the State of Pennsylvania, he says, in comparing single and double desks, "The former would be the more desirable in all cases."

Mr. Philbrick, the Superintendent of Schools in Connecticut, in his last Report, uses the following language in describing the recently erected Union School-house in Norwalk: — "A single desk, mounted on an iron support, is provided for each pupil, and each chair is supported by a single iron pedestal. Probably this is the best method of furnishing a school-room that has yet been invented." And in presenting his ideal of a perfect school-house in the body of his Report, he assigns to each scholar a separate desk and chair. We know that, when the Quincy School-house, in Boston, was furnished for the school under his charge, he was very earnest and used much effort to secure for the whole school the superior advantage of single desks.

Dr. Alcott, in his Essay on the Construction of School-houses, to which a prize was awarded by the American Institute of Instruction, uses the following emphatic language: — "In regard to the expense of erecting separate desks, I am most decidedly of opinion that the amount of time saved by it will be more than a sufficient compensation. Any thing which saves *time*, saves *money;* and I think time enough would be saved in three years by single desks, to amount, at the lowest possible estimate, to $100, including food, clothing, and tuition, — for these are properly included in the estimate. The saving need be but fifteen minutes a day to each of fifty pupils. Let him who has had experience in the business of instruction say whether more than even this amount of time is not lost by the present arrangement of a majority of existing school-rooms. My purpose has been to keep economy in view in every suggestion. Separate desks for each pupil I regard as *absolutely indispensable*. As to the increase of size which they give to the school-room, it should be remarked, that the purposes of health cannot possibly be answered without an amount of space at least as great as I have proposed, whether we use single desks or not."

3. A zone of blackboard, low enough for the youngest pupils and high enough for the oldest, should extend entirely around the room, except where interrupted by doors or windows. The teacher who knows how various and valuable are its uses, in the presentation and solution of mathematical truths and problems, in the drawing of maps and of different objects in nature and art, in grammatical analysis, in the elementary teaching of reading, writing, and spelling, in the illustration of every science without exception, and in the giving of relief to young pupils weary of sitting, will not even then find, that he has as much blackboard as he would desire. He wishes often to send each member of his largest classes to the board at the same time. He thus obtains an insight into their mental processes and difficulties, just as if he were bending over the shoulder of each one, while at work with slate and pencil at his desk. The blackboard has been well said to be a *window* by which the teacher can look into the pupil's brain. Room is also wanted, to allow some things to remain upon the board, from day to day. Mr. Burrowes, after insisting on a certain amount of blackboard, adds, "If extended all around the room, so much the better. It will add very little to the cost of the building, if provided for in the original contract, and it *will vastly facilitate* the competent teacher's instructions."

It is a common fault to make the blackboard too high, from conforming it to the height of the windows. It is recommended that the latter should not be lower than four feet from the floor, in order that the pupils may have better light, that they may be less exposed to cross draughts of air, and that they may not be diverted from their studies by objects without. But in a school, where the different ages are united, the bottom of the blackboard should not be higher than two feet and a half from the floor, while the top should be about seven feet. Even then, some of the youngest scholars will work better by standing upon a platform. It may be added, that a uniform stripe of this kind around the room will have a better architectural effect, than patches of blackboard here and there. There should be a trough or deeply grooved ledge at the bottom of the blackboard, wide enough to hold the crayons and rubbers, and also to keep the backs of chairs and settees from marring the board. At the top of the blackboard, and also near the top of the room, there should be mouldings or narrow strips of board for receiving such hooks or nails as may be needed for the suspension of maps, charts, cards, and pictures. Such provision should be made, that there should never be any temptation to drive a nail into the plastered wall.

4. There should be an aisle around the room wide enough for scholars to work at the blackboard, without annoyance from others passing them, for recitation seats, and for settees and chairs on occasions of public examination and of educational or other meetings. A width of about three feet and a half will be required for this purpose. Mr. Leach says (17th Report, p. 85), that the outer aisles of the school-room should be "from thirty-six to forty-eight inches." There are additional reasons why desks should never be arranged, as in many schools, against the walls; — as, that the building may be better kept from defacement, that the pupils may suffer less from draughts of cold air, and that the teacher may be able to pass around the room, and yet keep the whole school before him.

5. The arrangements for lighting, warming, and ventilation ought to be of the most perfect kind; because children cannot, at school as at home, take their places nearer or farther from the window or fire at pleasure, and go, whenever they wish, to an open door or window for fresh air. It is desirable that the desks should face a side of the room in which there are no windows; that the room should have a generous height; and that the windows, the better to subserve both light, warmth, and ventilation, should be placed higher than is usual in dwelling-houses. "The windows," says Mr. Burrowes, "should not be less than six feet in height (while those of seven or even eight feet would be better), and placed at least four feet from the floor." They should have blinds, both for their own protection, and for the better regulation of light and heat; and the sashes should always be balanced with weights. It is astonishing that, in so many rural school-houses, no provision is even made for letting down the upper sashes at all, and thus changing the air of the room. Two or three hours' work of a carpenter would make these houses worth twice as much, during the ensuing summer, for study, comfort, and health. Will not our new Prudential Committees see that this great evil, which may be so easily and cheaply remedied, shall not exist any longer?

6. To avoid crowding and consequent disorder, an ample breadth should be given to doors, passages, and entries.

7. The teacher's platform should be at the end of the room where the pupils enter. This arrangement is required for convenience in receiving visitors and speaking with callers, in communicating with the pupils as they pass in and out, and in preventing disorder in the entries. A small room should adjoin, for the safe keeping of books and apparatus, for the

teacher's outer clothing, for withdrawing, if need be, with a visitor or refractory scholar, and for occasional use in an extra recitation. There are advantages in giving to this room a glazed door, and also in placing, for the teacher's use, a small window between the main room and each entry. The teacher's eye is a great preventive of misconduct, and if it can readily command all the school premises, will do much to obviate the necessity of harsh command, of undesirable questioning of pupils in respect to their own or each other's behavior, and of severe punishment.

8. In rural districts, where clocks do not agree, and some of the scholars spend their nooning at the school-house, it is better that ante-rooms, or rooms in the basement, should be made comfortable for those who arrive early or remain at noon, than that the school-room should be exposed to injury from those active sports which are so natural to childhood, and which it would be so difficult, even if desirable, for the absent teacher entirely to repress or control. The mischief that so extensively befalls our school-rooms occurs chiefly during the periods of license before school commences, and between the two sessions.

9. In schools designed for both boys and girls, — and we earnestly advocate their joint education, — it is of essential importance that all the personal accommodations for the sexes, as ante-rooms, clothes'-rooms, and retiring-rooms, should be *entirely separate*. There are reasons for this stronger than are presented in the extract from Mr. Leach's Report, on page 164. The various rooms for the same sex should be connected together *under cover*, so that they may be accessible to both teacher and scholars, without exposure to storms or observation, and without ploughing through snow drifts. There should be no free access to any of these from the street or an open yard. They should be studiously complete in their provisions, and carefully arranged, so that they shall not be liable to become offensive, and that there shall be no temptation, on the one hand, to commit improprieties, or on the other, to violate the laws of health. Physicians inform us that the last consideration has a seriousness and an extent of which few persons, out of the profession, are aware. Except as these rules are observed, it will be very difficult, if not impossible, for the teacher to maintain entire control over all the school premises and preserve them from abuse, to break up bad habits which now extensively prevail, to give consistency to school influences, and to secure that absolute neatness, comfort, propriety, and delicacy, which should characterize the

school no less than the home. It must never be forgotten that scenes and surroundings, especially those of daily resort, have to all, and most of all, to the young, a voiceless language, by which they convey lessons of wisdom or folly, of virtue or vice, no less than books and living teachers. What, we are constrained to ask, are the silent but deeply imprinted lessons, that many of our school-houses have been teaching, generation after generation?

Such, without going into minute detail, are some of the most important principles and rules of School Architecture. And now, we beg the privilege of appealing to School Committees, Building Committees, Teachers, Parents, and Citizens generally. Will you not give to these matters that candid and careful consideration which their far-reaching influence demands? "When it is considered," says Mr. Mann, in his first Report as Secretary of the Board of Education, "that more than five-sixths of all the children in the State spend a considerable portion of the most impressible period of their lives in our school-houses, the general condition of those buildings, and their influences upon the young stand forth, at once, as topics of prominence and magnitude. The construction of school-houses connects itself closely with the love of study, with proficiency, health, anatomical formation, and length of life. These are great interests, and therefore suggest great duties. It is believed that, in some important particulars, their structure can be improved without the slightest additional expense; and that, in other respects, a small advance in cost would be returned a thousand-fold in the improvement of those habits, tastes, and sentiments of our children, which are so soon to be developed into public manners, institutions, and laws, and to become unchangeable history."

DESKS FOR YOUNG SCHOLARS.

Messrs. Editors: — I rejoice that the Superintendent of the Boston Schools is attempting some reforms in the school system of that city. With all its general excellence, it seems to me to be susceptible, especially in the important department of primary schools, — the basis of the pyramid, — of great improvement. I have noticed with regret, that the little chairs without desks, for primary scholars, have been extending, of late, from the metropolis into other cities and towns. "This is the fashion in Boston," it is said, "and therefore must be the most approved plan." But what is the testi-

mony of Mr. Bishop upon this subject, as given in his recent Report to the School Committee of Boston?

"The little chairs provided for seating the scholars are not well suited to the purpose, for they do not afford the occupants sufficient support for school seats. These young children, who are obliged to sit for several hours every day, with but few changes of position, or intervals for rest, need small desks before them to place their books and slates on, while using them, and to lean upon for rest when they are weary. But this is not all. No one can observe the cramped attitudes which the pupils are obliged to assume, in order to use their slates, without being convinced that these chairs are unfavorable to a healthful growth of the children who must occupy them for four or five hours a day. Without any desks before them they become extremely weary, and in this state the younger pupils often fall asleep, and really suffer for want of something to rest upon. The chairs now generally used in the Primary Schools are manifestly unsuited to their purpose, because they tend to check the natural and healthful physical development of the children, who are necessarily seated in them so large a portion of the school hours every day. School chairs with nothing before them for the occupant to place his hands upon for support or rest, have a tendency to produce an undue and continual bending forward of the child's spine, and consequently an injurious compression of the chest and lungs.

"For these and other reasons, I recommend that the School Committee take into consideration early in the year the expediency of requesting the City Council to furnish all new rooms for Primary Schools with small, cheap single desks and seats, arranged on the floors in a stationary manner like the furniture in the Grammar school-houses. It is believed that the superiority of this mode of seating the scholars will soon become so apparent, that no long period will be allowed to elapse, before stationary seats and desks will be provided for all the Primary Schools."

In the large and valuable work on School Architecture which Pennsylvania has recently published, under the charge of Mr. Burrowes, the highly esteemed Editor of the Pennsylvania School Journal, I find the following remarks by Mr. Burrowes, in confirmation of the statements above quoted.

"The desk is as necessary for the young as for older pupils, for several reasons. Children should not be long confined to one attitude, — frequent change of position seeming to be a want of their nature. After sitting upright in their seats for some time, they soon lean on the back of the chair or bench; but this posture before long also becomes irksome, and they will be observed to lean sideways upon each other. At this time it is, that restlessness and disorder begin to manifest themselves amongst the younger pupils, and at this time the forward support afforded by the desk, both for the person and the book, would form a relief to the scholars, and tend to the quiet of the school. Moreover, it is now admitted by all good teachers,

that the slate and pencil should be put into the hands of every pupil the very first day of his entrance into school; and this renders a desk indispensable, if there were no other reason."

Can you find room for the above, and oblige an

OBSERVER.

PLANS OF SCHOOL-HOUSES.

IN the consideration of plans for school-houses, the preliminary question arises, how many pupils should be assigned to a single teacher. This must, of course, be a matter of estimate, and not of demonstration; and different persons would vary in the number which they would fix upon for the maximum. Much must also depend upon circumstances. Some teachers have greater ability in this respect, greater diffusiveness of influence, than others. And it is easier to take charge of fifty pupils in a well-graded school, than of thirty in an ungraded one.

The teacher's work may here be divided into two parts. One part depends upon the number of his classes, without much regard to the numbers in each class. This part is materially aided by a good classification. The other part depends upon the number of his pupils, without much respect to class arrangements, and is little affected by these. Each pupil requires, for his best good and the best good of the school, a certain amount of *individual* attention, study, guidance, assistance, sympathy, and expressed affection from the teacher. This is essential even for a proper classification; and all classification in its very nature, must be more or less imperfect. Classify as we may, we must still deal with our pupils as individuals; with John, and Henry, and Charlotte, and Susan, and not with Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4 of Class A. The sun, vast as is the extent of his operations, never shines upon the class of roses or of daisies in general; but sends his rays into the bosom of each individual flower, just as if there were no other in existence, waking and warming it into life and bloom.

It is not in human nature to be guided aright by care in general, or to send forth a glowing return for affection in general. The wants of the heart can never be met by a distributive share of the attention or love bestowed upon a nation, city, family, or group; and these wants in the breast of every child *must be met*, if he is to be educated aright. For the proper culture of his intellect, he must

not be squared to the exact pattern of Class No. 4; and for the best development of his moral and emotional nature, he must feel that his teacher loves him, and looks after him, and seeks his good, not as occupying a particular place in a particular row, but for what he is *in and of himself*. The younger pupils are, the greater is the relative extent of this second part of the teacher's work.

There are limits, then, beyond which no perfectness of classification can multiply the number of young pupils that may properly be committed to the charge of a single teacher. And in proportion as the classification is less perfect, the number ought, of course, to be diminished. The law of the State, though not imperative, has fixed upon fifty scholars as the number requiring that the school should have an assistant teacher. "In every school in this Commonwealth containing fifty scholars as the average number, the school district or town, to which such school belongs, shall be required to employ a female assistant or assistants, unless such school district or town shall, at a meeting regularly called for that purpose, vote to dispense with the same." — *Stat.* 1839, *Ch.* 56.

The Regulations of the Boston schools, in which, with the exception of the primary schools, classification and gradation have been carried farther than in any other schools in the Commonwealth, prescribe or recommend the proportion of one teacher to thirty-five pupils in the high schools, to sixty pupils upon the register in the grammar schools, and to an average attendance of fifty pupils in the primary schools. In our other cities and towns, where the gradation is less complete, it is usual to provide teachers in a more liberal ratio.

For our own part, we cannot help thinking that, whether in city or country, in graded or ungraded schools, forty pupils are as many as should be given to a single teacher; that a mind in the process of education is entitled to at least as large a fraction as *one-fortieth*, of the attention, care, thought, guidance, stimulus, sympathy, and affection of an educating mind. From the difficulty, however, of adjusting school attendance, especially in rural districts, an average number of forty pupils would require a somewhat larger number of desks; say, for convenience of arrangement, forty-eight or forty-nine desks (6×8, or 7×7). Fifty-six (7×8) appears to us to be the largest number of desks that, even in the best classified grammar or primary school, should be put into a single room. And we should prefer not to admit this number, except in special cases, to meet some temporary emergency. A district

having usually fifty pupils at school, ought unquestionably, in accordance with the law, to employ two teachers; and even these will have too many classes, and too great a variety of age and attainment, for the fullest and best instruction.

For securing the advantages and avoiding the evils referred to on page 170, there are two convenient methods of making provision in our rural school-houses; the one, by means of a basement, and the other, by placing the entrances upon the sides of the house, with the school-room in front. The first method is decidedly superior in the advantages which it offers; the second method, by some limitation of conveniences, can be made somewhat cheaper.

"It is desirable," says Mr. Leach (17th Report, p. 85), "that there should be a basement under every school-house. The bottom may be covered with a floor, with brick, or with hydraulic cement. The basement should be divided into two parts, one for each sex. There should be a well in the centre, and a pump and sink in each part. A part of it can conveniently be used for storing fuel, &c." Mr. Burrowes says (Penn. School Architecture, p. 30), "Every school-house should have a cellar. This not only renders the floor drier, and the house more healthful and comfortable, but saves the cost of a wood or coal house. In the event of heating by means of a furnace, it will also serve an admirable purpose." In a favorable location, this cellar, of which the greater part would otherwise be waste room, might readily, and with no great expense, be converted into a pleasant and most useful basement.

Our first plan will be that of a house with a single school-room, or, as we may term it for convenience, a single school-house, and with a basement.

I. A Single School-House with a Basement.

The following Figures represent a building, 45 by 30 feet on the inside. It should be set as near the back line of the lot as convenience will allow, leaving the ground for recreation and rural embellishment chiefly in front and on the sides. If proper care is taken in preparing the building and grounds, and in the disposition of shrubbery, no fence will be needed or desirable, except around the lot. The school-room is 30 feet wide, and 31 feet long, not including the recess behind the teacher's desk, which is 8 by 2½ feet. The plans have been made for a building of one story, but they would equally suit a building of two stories, stairs being carried from the entries into the second story, over the stairs leading into the basement.

FIGURE 1.—PLAN OF THE MAIN STORY.

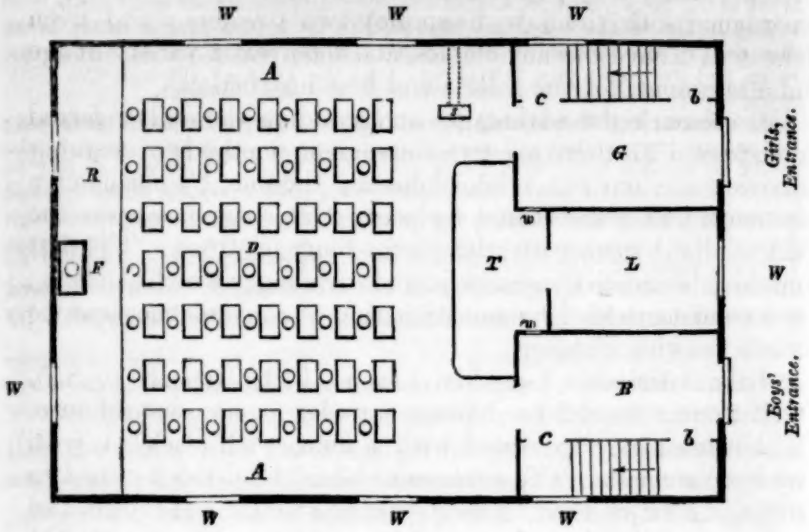
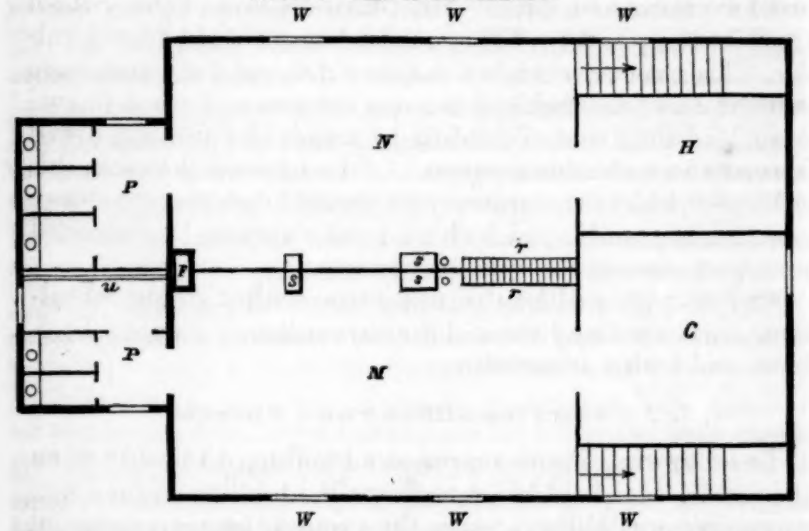


FIGURE 2.—PLAN OF THE BASEMENT.



EXPLANATIONS.—B — Entry for Boys, and G — Entry for Girls, each 13 ft. 7 in. by 7 ft.; leading to the School Room, and also by the doors *b b* to the Basement. The doors *c c* open into Closets, through one of which access may be had to the Attic, either by a flight of stairs or by a simple scuttle. The entries are to be provided with rows of strong hooks for hats, bonnets, cloaks, &c.

T — Teacher's Platform, 14 by 4 ft., and within the recess 8 by 2½ ft., and 8 in. high. Behind the platform, a door opens into L, a room 8 ft. by 11 ft. 2 in., for Library, Apparatus, &c. See p. 169. *w w* — Small Windows, looking into the entries. The doors should not swing towards these.

S S — Stoves (unless the building is heated by warm air or steam brought from the basement). The dotted lines, in Fig. 1, represent an air box (say 10 inches square), for the admission of pure air. No stove should ever be used in a school-room without an efficient provision for the introduction and warming of pure air, and for screening the pupils, who sit near, from the

direct radiation of the heated sides of the stove. The stove in the basement is set in the brick partition, so that one stove may warm both apartments, that it may be less in the way, and that there may be no danger of its being disturbed by the children in their sports. The mouth should be in the boys' room, and the smoke pipe should pass into the chimney through the girls' room.

F — Smoke and Ventilating Flues. These may be variously arranged; but perhaps the simplest and most efficient method would be to carry up the smoke by an iron pipe within the ventilating flue. The latter should be smooth inside and of ample dimensions, with large apertures at the top and bottom of the room, and also in the basement. It should be carried through the roof like a chimney, and have on the top an ejector, or ventilating cap. The clear space for the passage of air in the ventiduct of a room occupied by fifty scholars, should be at least, according to Mr. Leach, 14 inches square, and according to Mr. Burrowes, 10 by 18 inches. In the plan, about 12 by 28 inches are allowed, including the smoke pipe.

D — 49 Single Desks, each two ft. long, and about 16 in. wide, an average of about 33 inches being allowed to each desk with its chair. These are separated from the teacher's platform by a space of 4 ft.; from the opposite wall of the room, by a Recitation Platform, R, 4 ft. wide and 7 or 8 in. high; and from the two side walls, by Aisles, A A, 3½ ft. wide. The aisles between the rows of desks, are 18 inches wide. If 56 desks are wanted, the school-room should be made a trifle longer.

W W W — Windows. From those in the school-room and library, the teacher can observe the school-grounds, and vicinity of the school-house, in every direction, a very important point for the proper government and care of a body of thoughtless, impulsive, and volatile children. The number and precise position of the windows, both in the school-room and in the basement, should be governed by the location of the building and other circumstances.

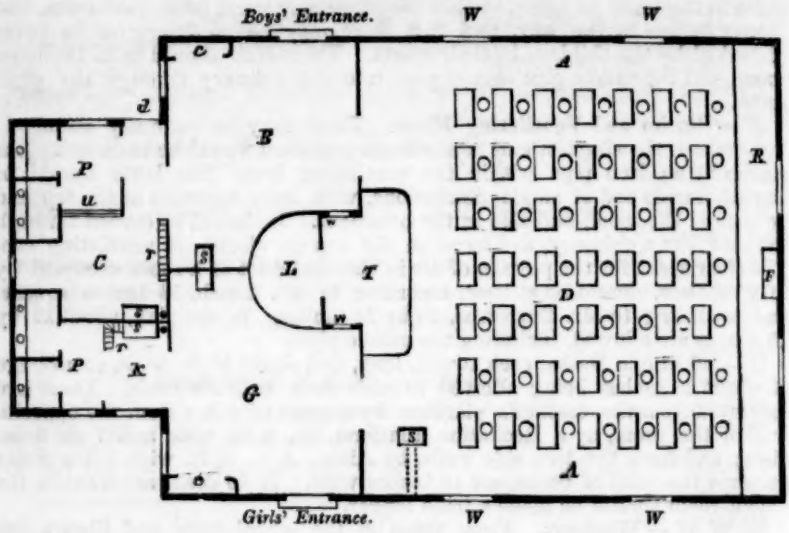
M N — Apartments in the Basement for Boys and Girls, made neat and comfortable, and entirely separated from each other by a brick partition; each apartment having a sink and pump, *s s;* racks and boxes for umbrellas and overshoes, *r r;* conveniences for drying wet clothes, some plain seats, &c. C — Room for Wood and Coal. H — Store Room, for furniture only occasionally wanted, &c.

P P — Privies attached to the main building, and not accessible except through this; each 8 by 8 ft. with entries and subdivisions, and most careful provision for convenience, neatness, and ventilation. The entries have windows with strong and permanent venetian blinds. During the summer the sashes should be taken out and placed in the store room. *u* — Urinal. — The doors from the basement should be furnished with springs or weights, so as never to remain open; and the seats should have covers so hung that they will always fall as soon as left. If in any case, it is thought better to detach the privies from the main building, the passages to them should be covered, thoroughly separated by a good partition (not of mere single boards), and entirely protected against observation. In some situations, it might be better to make the outer sides of the entries simply of large permanent blinds. The additional building for the privies appears larger than it should, in the figure.

II. A Single School-house without a Basement.

In this plan, the school-room occupies the front of the building, which, of course, should not be set too near the street. The dimensions of the main building and the size and arrangement of the school room are precisely the same as in the first plan. The additional building is 18 by 12 feet inside.

FIGURE 3.



EXPLANATIONS. — B G — Entries and Ante-rooms, each 13 ft. 7 in. by 14 ft. 10 in., both warmed by the stove S, set in the partition, with the stove pipe passing through the girls' entry and another partition into the pipe of the school-room stove. *c c* — Closets, with the projecting corners rounded, since sharp angles are often unkind to children. L — Closet for library apparatus, &c., 8 by 5½ feet. T — Teacher's Platform, 12 by 6½ feet. F — Ventilating Flue, connected with the smoke flue at the top of the room or in the attic. See Mr. Leach's Plan for Ventilating (17th Report, pp. 85, 100). C — Wood and Coal Room, with a passage leading by doors into B and P, and having also the outer door *d* for convenience in bringing in fuel. This door should be carefully kept bolted, except when wanted for the use of the school. P P — Privies with entries, blinded windows, self closing doors, &c., as in the first plan. *r r* — Racks for umbrellas. *s s* — Sinks with pumps. K — Girls' Sink Room. — For further explanations, see the notes to the preceding plan.

From misunderstanding on the part of the engraver, some of the proportions in Figures 2 and 3, are not given with strict exactness. But these slight inaccuracies will be readily corrected by reference to the dimensions given in the text.

This plan might also be adapted to a building of two stories, by making staircases in the outer corners of the entries, which ought then to be a little enlarged. In the second story, which would have only the main building, B, G, L, and T should be conformed to Figure 1, and F would require enlargement.

We cannot close this article, without expressing our obligations to Mr. A. R. Esty, of Boston, the architect of the Framingham Normal School, for assistance in arranging some of the details of these plans. For principles involved, and which seem to us of vital importance in our school arrangements, we beg leave to refer our readers to the preceding article on the "Laws of School Architecture."

SCHOOL AND HOME.

Report of a School Scene, at a General Lesson. — *Teacher.* How large do you think the sun is?

Little Boy. Why, it is as big around as the crown of father's hat. [*A general laugh.*]

Large Boy (contemptuously). Why, it is a million times larger than the earth.

Teacher. Well, Robert, you laugh very heartily at James' answer. Do you think you have a very clear notion yourself, when you say the sun is a million times larger than the earth?

Robert. Yes, sir.

Teacher. How far is it from the earth to the moon?

Robert. Two hundred and fifty thousand miles.

Teacher. Suppose, now, that God, by his great power, should one day bring the sun close up to the earth, would it reach as far as to the moon?

Robert. Oh, no!

Teacher. Robert, it would reach all the way, and half as far again.

Robert, and all the rest. Oh!

Teacher. You would not undertake to say, Robert, that you ever had a clear notion of a ball so large as that. It is easy to say the words we read in a book about the sun or the stars; but it is not quite so easy to have clear thoughts about them. It is hard for the mind to grasp things so great. We feel then, as one has said in the Bible, when he was thinking about God being every where present, "such knowledge is too wonderful for us."

Shall the Teacher require Study out of School? — Teachers should require their pupils to prepare the appointed lesson, for recitation at the time assigned. And it is of comparatively little importance *when* or *where* the preparation is made. As a teacher is not responsible either for the conduct or employment of his scholars out of school, the sphere of his authority is limited to the school-room; and consequently he cannot enforce a requirement made upon any scholar to study any specified time except in school. If the recitation is satisfactory, the scholar is presumed to have done his whole duty with regard to it.

The ability, mental and bodily, should decide the amount of study required of every scholar; and the manner of recitation, his rank. If a scholar fails frequently, or is very imperfect in his recitations, let his rank be reduced.

In a word, the time during which a scholar may be required to study, cannot be limited; and one may be obliged, or, of his own free will, disposed, to study longer than another. He may even study *out of school* for the same reason, and find it an advantage. As to the effect of study, the Rev. Dr. Humphrey once said, "I have yet to see the man who died from the effects of study." My experience

confirms his statement, and I consider the charge of serious injury to mind or body from study solely, where the exercise, diet and habits are properly regulated, to be rarely made with any reasonable and sufficient foundation. — *Mr. A. Walker* (in the Discussion at Lowell).

SCHOOLS OF THE OLDEN TIME.

[The *Maine Farmer* tells us that Mr. Crosby, Secretary of the Board of Education for that State, was lucky enough to "crib" the following original poetry while attending an Institute in Aroostook county. Who the author is does not appear, but certainly if he perpetrates a few more ballads of this sort, the world will be "looking after him." It is full of the memories of the dear old times when "we were a boy" and "trudged to school." — *Illinois Teacher.*]

The Schools — the schools of other days!
Those were the schools for me;
When, in a frock and trousers dressed,
I learned my A B C.

When, with my dinner in my hat,
I trudged away to school;
Nor dared to stop, as boys do now, —
For school-ma'ams had a *rule*.

With locks well combed, and face so clean,
(Boys washed their faces then,)
And a "stick horse" to ride upon —
What happy little men.

And if a traveller we met,
We threw no sticks and stones
To fright the horses as they passed,
Or break good people's bones.

But, with our hats beneath our arms,
We bent our heads full low;
For ne'er the school-ma'am failed to ask,
"Boys, did you make a bow?"

And all the little girls with us
Would courtesy full low,
And hide their ankles 'neath their gowns —
Girls don't have ankles now.

We stole no fruit, nor tangled grass;
We played no noisy games,
And when we spoke to older folks,
Put *handles on their names.*

And when the hour for school had come —
Of bell we had no need —
The school-ma'am's rap upon the glass
Each one would quickly heed.

The school-ma'am — Heaven bless her name —
When shall we meet her like?
She always wore a green calash,
A calico vandyke.

She never sported pantalets,
No silks on her did rustle;
Her dress hung gracefully all round —
She never wore a bustle.

With modest mien and loving heart
Her daily task was done,
And, true as needle to the pole,
The next one was begun.

The days were all alike to her,
The evenings just the same,
And neither brought a change to us
Till Saturday forenoon came.

And then we had a "spelling match,"
And learned the sounds of A —
The months and weeks that made the year,
The hours that made the day.

And on that day we saw her smile —
No other time smiled she —
'T was then she told us learnedly
When next "leap-year" would be.

Alas, kind soul, though leap-year came
And went full many a time,
In "single-blessedness" she toiled
Till far beyond her prime.

But now indeed her toils are o'er,
Her lessons all are said,
Her rules well learned, her words well spelled —
She's *gone up to the head.*

How True and Beautiful! — Education does not commence with the alphabet. It begins with a mother's look — with a father's smile of approbation or sign of reproof — with a sister's gentle pressure of the hand, or a brother's noble act of forbearance — with handfuls of flowers in green and daisy meadow — with birds' nests admired, but not touched — with creeping ants, and almost imperceivable emmets — with humming bees and glass behives — with pleasant walks in shady lanes, and with thoughts directed in sweet and kindly tones and words to nature, to acts of benevolence, to deeds of virtue, and to the source of all good, to God himself. — *Frazer's Magazine.*

HOW CHILDREN LEARN TO READ IN CLEVELAND, OHIO.

I may have been sufficiently minute in describing the course pursued in teaching Reading in the Primary Schools, but since the method of giving *first lessons* is a little peculiar, and has on this account, perhaps, attracted attention and led to some inquiry respecting it, I beg to explain the theory and practice adopted.

Instead of commencing with the alphabet, and learning the names of the 26 letters as preliminary to reading, *words*, to a limited extent, are learned first. The words selected and now used in the schools, number 126, though the *word lessons*, especially taught as such, embrace but 72 of them. The whole are as follows:—

Cap, cat, dog, rat, girl, good, bad, a, the, boy, cow, hat, pig, black, old, tree, and, bird, is, John, see, time, with, day, house, Mary, on, not, box, can, play, I, my, book, read, in, little, new, sled, run, fox, horse, saw, eat, ride, for, come, he, George, sing, lamb, hen, white, pie, milk, was, go, to, it, give, you, will, has, at, runs, nice, like, sit, school, no, do, me, that, of, all, are, as, be, been, but, by, could, done, even, ever, every, had, have, her, here, him, his, how, into, its, let, live, love, man, may, men, must, now, or, our, what, said, say, shall, she, so, such, them, then, there, they, this, up, us, we, when, where, which, who.

These words, I will remark, are so frequently used in speaking and writing, that they constitute considerably more than half of all one meets with in reading through an ordinary book. Hence the importance can be seen of commencing with this class, and learning them thoroughly at the outset.

I prepared a small Primer, comprising the words above enumerated, arranged and classified under a series of word lessons, each of which is followed by reading exercises, made up of sentences and phrases constructed from the words going before. There are twenty-three pages of these reading exercises, embracing a great variety of simple expressions, such as children make use of at home while their vocabulary is yet limited. It will be noticed that the words are among the first required by children, in their efforts to express their ideas in oral language.

Our teachers find, that under ordinary circumstances, from six to twelve weeks are required for beginners to learn the seventy-two words embraced in the word lessons, so as to speak them at sight, and read properly all the sentences that follow them. They find also, that at the end of this time, their pupils have learned in some way, the *names of the letters*, without any direct or special instruction from any one. This is the general rule. Indeed, we should expect it to be so. Children are not ordinarily taught the name of one thing in a thousand with which they become acquainted. At this point of the pupil's progress, the interest manifested for learning is usually very great. The reading of words by pronouncing the names of the letters is now commenced, and the whole ground is again gone over. Every word is printed upon the slate or blackboard, spelled orally in the usual way, and the less difficult ones spelled phonetically. In the meantime, advanced lessons are taken, and new words are learned,

though their orthography is not, as a usual thing, deferred for any considerable length of time, as at the beginning. In fact, the whole subsequent course differs now in no very material manner from that commonly pursued, except that it aims to be *very much more thorough*, as may be noticed in the plan of advancing pupils already mentioned.

One important advantage gained by teaching children words before letters, is, that it gives them pleasure and not pain to learn in this manner. School, and all its exercises, ought to be contrived so as to render children as happy and joyous as they usually are at home. There is always a mistake made somewhere, when this is not so.

While it is true that they readily acquire the names of things about them — learning hundreds, even before they are old enough to be sent to school — it is also true that they are slow to learn what they have no special interest in. Should a mother take her little one, who is just learning to talk, and shut it into a room for six hours a day, with no liberty of *self*-instruction — with liberty to do nothing but to *sit still* — and there endeavor to teach it the names of *twenty-six* objects, the most uninteresting that could possibly be gathered by searching the house from the garret to the cellar — objects to which the child could attach no sort of idea — it would require weeks and months to learn them; the child would become disgusted with the exercise, and dread the very sight of the room. And yet this is precisely the way little children are usually treated in our schools. They are drilled from two to four months on the letters of the alphabet. During this time, they cry to go home and are whipped for playing truant.

Show them the words, *boy*, *cat*, *sled*, and their eyes sparkle with interest, because they awaken thought. They are readily learned in a single day. Perhaps on the subsequent day, the words, *a*, *good* and *bad*, are learned. They now read with delight, "a good boy," "a bad boy," "a good cat," &c.

It is not unfrequent that pupils become so deeply interested in learning to read in this manner, that they will get in advance of their class, learning new words as they learn other things in which they are interested, by inquiring them out, or from hearing others speak them.

So far as the names of the letters are concerned, in facilitating the pronunciation of words, as a general thing, they are of little use. There is nothing in the names of the letters, *c-a-t*, for example, that would lead to the pronunciation of the word *cat*. When these letters are spoken rapidly, they spell *seatee*, quite a different word, it will be seen, from the one they are commonly supposed to spell. Take any word at random, and it will be found that the names of the letters that compose it, are so unlike the elementary sounds employed in speaking it, that they do not facilitate its pronunciation in the least. So anomalous is our language, that whatever system is adopted for teaching the elements of reading, a large class of words must be, and are, *virtually* taught upon the *word method*.

Even now, with all our skill in orthoepy, a strange word of this class occasionally comes under the eye, and we are unable to pronounce it. No repetition of its letters helps us in the least. If the

word is learned at all, it must be learned as a fact of oral usage; and to arrive at this, we must either *hear* it pronounced, or turn to a dictionary where its orthoepy is indicated by some key to pronunciation. The words, *eight*, *thought*, *through*, *though*, *plough*, *rough*, *laugh*, *cough*, *victuals*, and hundreds of others, of equally anomalous character, we have been obliged to learn in this manner, for the simple reason that they could have been learned in no other.

There is another class of words, however, made up of syllables analogous in their form and sound, and these may be learned otherwise. Their pronunciation may be inferred from the resemblance of their parts to words and syllables already known. No attempt, therefore, should be made to teach them as whole words. — *Report of A. Freese, Sup't of Instruction.*

Punctuality. — Not long since we were conversing with a prominent teacher, and sought to detain him a little longer than his business seemed to warrant. "I cannot stop now," said he, "I must be at my school-room."

"Are you always thus prompt?" we inquired.

"Yes," said he, "and that is the best way I know of to teach my pupils to be always in time. I have not been a moment behind the time of commencing my school in two years, and during the six years I have been a teacher, I have never lost fifteen minutes, all told, from my school-room, by being late."

As he left us, we thought we discovered one reason at least, why our friend was a successful teacher. — *R. I. Schoolmaster.*

Ever the Same — My Mother. — Yet even with the holiest dictates of our reasons and souls has fashion insinuated her poisonous influence; and the son, perchance, who left his parents' humble home reluctantly and tearfully, to make his way in the world, forgets, when fortune favors, to welcome his rustic mother to his own luxury, with the same cordial embrace with which he left her in his childhood home. Her dim old eyes, perchance, do not catch readily the meaningless courtesies of life; nevertheless, they look none the less lovingly upon her child than when they watched over his helpless infancy. Her withered hands may be large and bony, and never have known a jewel; but none the less gently did they smooth the weary pillow, or bathe the heated brow in the dependent days of boyhood. Ah! she's the same fond mother still; her aged and work-bent form, clad in rustic garb, conceals a heart full of never-dying love, and ready for a new sacrifice. — *Sel.*

The Crooked Tree. — A child, when asked why a certain tree grew crooked, replied, "Somebody trod on it, I suppose when it was a little fellow." How painfully suggestive is that answer. How many, with aching hearts, can remember the days of their childhood, when they were the victims of indiscreet repression, rather than the happy subjects of some kind direction and culture. The effects of such misguided discipline have been apparent in their history and character, and by no process of human devising can the wrong be now rectified. The grand error in their education consisted in a system of rigid restraints, without corresponding efforts to develop, cultivate, and train in a right direction. — *Sel.*

REVIEWERS' TABLE.

FIRST LESSONS IN THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES; compiled for the use of Common Schools. By a Practical Teacher. Boston: Hickling, Swan, & Brown. 1856. 12mo, pp. 196.

We have here a history of our country, that appears to be unusually well adapted to the purpose for which it is designed. It is brief, simple in its language, illustrated by maps and engravings, and attractive in its whole appearance. We hope that it may be instrumental in the more general introduction of this branch of study into our common schools. The young delight in stories; in facts, rather than abstract truths. This seems to be the voice of Nature, recommending that History should have a larger and an earlier place in our course of school studies, than is usually assigned to it. In this respect, we fall behind other enlightened nations. With a nobler history than any other nation, and stronger reasons, in the character of our institutions, for its universal study, still we believe that there is no well educated people in whose school course this department does not hold a more prominent place. We join most heartily with the author in affirming, as he does in his preface, "that every child in the United States should learn something of the history of his own country, before leaving school. He should have imprinted on his mind a vivid outline of the story of his native land."

In the English schools, an elementary work on history is often used as a reading book; and this example might, in many cases, be imitated in our schools with great advantage. Where this practice is adopted with a suitable text-book, it is found that from the mere reading exercise, conducted as it should be, most of the pupils acquire, with scarce a conscious effort, a familiar acquaintance with the chief scenes and incidents depicted in their text-book. They will tell you all about Pocahontas, the landing of the Pilgrims, Mrs. Dustan's escape, the destruction of the tea, the capture of André, and other like subjects, as long as you will listen to them.

This book begins, as popular American history must, with the story of Columbus; and follows, with vivacious narrative, the stream of events down to the election of President Pierce. It is the more valuable, even for the study of children, from its containing in full the Declaration of Independence, and the Constitution of the United States. The story of the spirited remonstrance of the Boston boys is thus told:

"During the winter, before the Port Bill passed, the boys were in the habit of building hills of snow on the Common, and sliding down upon them to the pond. The English troops beat down these hills, merely to provoke the children. The boys complained of the injury, and set about repairing it. However, when they returned from school, they found the snow hills beaten down again. Several of the boys now waited upon the British captain, and informed him of the conduct of his soldiers; but he would have nothing to say to them, and the soldiers were more impudent than ever. At last they called a meeting of the largest boys, and sent them to General Gage, commander-in-chief.

"He asked why so many children had called upon him. 'We came,

sir,' said the tallest boy, 'to demand satisfaction.' 'What!' said the general; 'have your fathers been teaching you rebellion, and sent you to show it here?' 'Nobody sent us, sir,' answered the boy, while his cheek reddened and his eye flashed; 'we have never injured nor insulted your troops; but they have trodden down our snow hills, and broken the ice on our skating ground. We complained, and they called us young rebels, and told us to help ourselves if we could. We told the captain of this, and he laughed at us. Yesterday our works were destroyed for a third time; and, sir, we will bear it no longer.'

"The general looked at them with admiration, and said to an officer at his side, 'The very children draw in a love of liberty with the air they breathe. You may go, my brave boys; and be assured, if my troops trouble you again, they shall be punished.'"

AN AMERICAN DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, &c. By Noah Webster, LL.D, &c. Revised and enlarged by C. A. Goodrich, &c. Springfield: G. & C. Merriam. 4to, pp. 1460.

A PRONOUNCING, EXPLANATORY, AND SYNONYMOUS DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, &c. By Joseph E. Worcester, LL.D. Boston: Hickling, Swan & Brown. 8vo, pp. 565.

We acknowledge, and with no formal gratitude, the receipt of these, the latest works of our two great lexicographers,—ornaments and benefactors of our country and our language. To attempt a review of works of such protracted labor, consummate ability, and established reputation, would seem indecorous. We rather accept them as our masters in the critical art, and lay them upon our table to review other works by. "But is it possible you had no copies of them there before?" Certainly we had; and these come in very opportunely to save the others from being quite worn out by the thumbing of daily use. Both dictionaries are the more indispensable to us, because they so differ in their especial excellences, their *strong points*,—a difference so wide that it would scarce seem possible that they should come into any rivalship with each other. Certainly, amid all the Crimean cannonading of the far famed "Dictionary War," they have worked upon our table quietly and harmoniously side by side. Of the two distinguished authors,—long life and, for our sakes, yet more abundant labors to the living; garlands of ever fresh memory and gratitude to the departed!

THE RISE, PROGRESS AND PRESENT STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. By the Rev. Matthew Harrison, A.M. Philadelphia: E. C. & J. Biddle. 1856. 12mo, pp. 398.

We are glad to welcome a second edition of this valuable work so well fitted to interest in the study of our noble language, and so richly supplied with happily chosen illustrative examples.

THE EXHIBITION SPEAKER, AND GYMNASTIC BOOK; containing Farces, Dialogues, and Tableaux, with Exercises for Declamation, in Prose and Verse. Also, a Treatise on Elocution and Oratory, to which is added a System of Gymnastic and Calisthenic Exercises, adapted to Schools, with instructions for Teachers and Pupils, and Sixty Illustrations. By P. A. Fitzgerald. Rochester: D. M. Dewey. New York: Sheldon, Lamport & Blakeman. 1856. 12mo, 268 pages.

This book contains, as its title indicates, a great variety of materials for use in school exhibitions. We hope that that part of it which relates to gymnastic and calisthenic exercises will receive especial attention. There is a lamentable neglect of physical training in our systems of education;—a neglect of comparatively little consequence

when our boys and girls for the most part lived on farms, with the free air blowing all around them, plain, healthy food, early hours, long walks to school, and invigorating farm work for half the year when the school was not keeping; but which threatens to be disastrous, now that they are chiefly gathered into cities and villages, are indulged in luxuries, indolence, and fashionable dissipation, and have little work except school work, often counting that a hardship which boys and girls used to look upon as comparative play.

MY FIRST EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION WRITING. By an experienced Teacher. Boston: Robinson & Richardson.

This is a book specially prepared for the purpose of rendering the oft-dreaded exercise of composition not only easy but pleasant to the pupil. It is attractive in its appearance, judicious in its brief directions, and spreads out before the pupil tempting pages of beautiful white paper, all ready to receive the expression of his young thoughts and fresh feelings. It may be usefully put into the heads of scholars, as soon as they have learned to write.

ELEMENTARY MORAL LESSONS, for Schools and Families. By M. F. Cowdery, Superintendent of Public Schools, Sandusky, O. "The Good alone are Great." Philadelphia: H. Cowperthwait & Co., 1856. pp. 261.

We like the plan of this book exceedingly, and have the feeling, from the attention we have been able to give to it during the day since we received it, that it ought to be in every school and every home. We shall return to the book, when we have more time; we shall study it; and if we find it what we expect, shall regard it as the most important addition to our list of school books that has been made since the publication of Colburn's First Lessons in Arithmetic.

WORKS RECEIVED. — Our obligations are due to the School Committees of Bridgewater, Falmouth, Georgetown, Hingham, Millbury, Northampton, Saugus, and Springfield, for copies of their Annual Reports; to the Commissioner of Public Schools in Rhode Island, for a copy of his Annual Report to the General Assembly; and to our mathematical friend, Benjamin Greenleaf, Esq., for his Almanac in Cherokee, which we should be happy to review if we could read it. But we can never look without interest upon anything printed in that wonderful syllabic alphabet, the invention of the unlettered George Guess. We would also acknowledge the receipt of a Lecture by Rev. Thomas Hill, on "Geometry, the Foundation of Learning;" an Address before the Alumni of the Connecticut State Normal School, by L. L. Camp; and Catalogues or Circulars of the Albany Female Academy, now under the charge of Mr. E. S. Stearns, late Principal of the Framingham Normal School, of the M'Neely Normal School of Ohio, of Wauwatosa Academy, near Milwaukee, Wis., of the Classical and English Boarding School of Rev. E. H. Barstow, at Newton Centre, of Mrs. Sherman's Family School for Young Ladies (formerly Mrs. Peabody's), at Hanover, N. H., and of the Temple Place School for Young Ladies, to be opened in this city in September next, by Mr. Williams, now Principal of the Winthrop School. We have also received a great amount of valuable reading

in the Educational Periodicals which have made us their monthly visits. The value of several of the above mentioned works we hope to acknowledge hereafter more fittingly than we can do in this brief notice.

QUESTION BOX.

We thank our correspondents for the kind attention which they have given to our Question Box, and trust that they will continue their favors, and that others will follow their example, both by answering the questions in our present number, and by furnishing new queries.

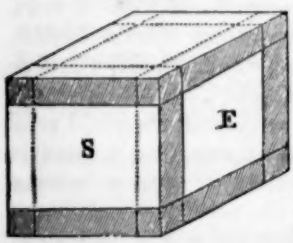
ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN THE JANUARY NUMBER.

1. I have a board whose surface contains 49 5-8 square feet; the board is 1 1-2 inches thick, and I wish to make a cubical box of it. Required the length of one of its equal sides.
2. A carpenter has a plank 1 foot wide, 22 37-72 feet long, and 2 1-2 inches thick; and he wishes to make a box whose width shall be twice its height, and whose length shall be twice its width. Required the contents of the box.

Is it worth while to try to make astronomical observations without a telescope? Is it worth while to study mosses without a microscope? Or to travel without using steam? Or to report verbatim without learning Phonography? In other words, is it worth while to endeavor to solve intricate questions involving second and third roots, without the use of Algebra? I think not; and should advise "a Young Teacher," when he meets with a question asking how large a cubical box he can make of a given quantity of board, to tell his class that the question requires Algebra for its solution.

H.

Fig. 1.



No. 1.— Suppose the 6 pieces of which the box is made, to be so arranged (Fig. 1), that the edges of the top, bottom, and sideswill appear at the ends, as in the shaded parts about E; and that the edges of the top and bottom will appear at the sides, as in the shaded parts above and below S.

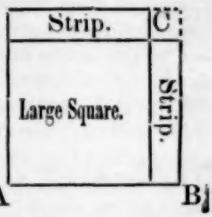
The external area of each face of the box may be considered as divided into, 1st, a large square, as at E; 2d, 4 strips, one on each side of the large square, having each a width equal to the thickness of the board, ($1\frac{1}{2}$ in.,) and the same length as one side of the large square; and 3d, 4 small squares, each having, for the length of a side, the thickness of the board. In the 6 faces of the box, then, there are 6 large squares + 24 strips + 24 small squares.

But the shaded parts, though forming part of the external area of the sides and ends, do *not* form part of the side and end *pieces* of the box,* and are not to be reckoned as consuming any part of the surface of the board. If, then, from the large squares, strips, and small squares, that make up the whole external area of the box, we deduct 12 strips, (2 for each side, and 4 for each end), and 16 small squares, (4 for each side, and 4 for each end), we have left 6 large squares + 12 strips + 8 small squares = the area of the board = $49\frac{5}{8}$ sq. ft. = 7146 sq. in.

*Notice the difference between the side and side *piece*, and the end and end *piece*, of the box.

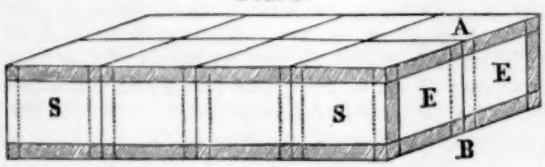
From this, deduct the area of the 8 small squares ($(1\frac{1}{2}$ in.$)^2 \times 8 = 18$ sq. in.) and we have 6 large squares + 12 strips = 7146 sq. in. − 18 sq. in. = 7128 sq. in. Divide this by 6, and we find 1 large square + 2 strips = $\frac{7128}{6}$ sq. in. = 1188 sq. in. This large square and the 2 strips may be arranged as in Fig. 2, which will be an exact square if we fill the corner C, $(1\frac{1}{2}$ in.$)^2 = 2\frac{1}{4}$ sq. in.

Fig. 2.



Then, 1188 sq. in. + $2\frac{1}{4}$ sq. in. = the area of the square (Fig. 2) completed = $\frac{4761}{4}$ sq. in. Then, $\sqrt{\frac{4761}{4}}$ sq. in. = $\frac{69}{2}$ in. = length of one side of the square, or the line A B. This, it is evident (see Fig. 1), is $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. less than the length of a side of the box; therefore, $\frac{69}{2}$ in. + $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. = 36 in. = the length of one side.

Fig. 3.



No. 2. — Let, in Fig. 3, the shaded parts about E E, represent the edges of the top, bottom, and sides, at the end of the box; and the shaded parts above and below S S, the edges of the top and bottom, at the side. These shaded parts represent the thickness of the plank, and form part of the external area of the side and end of the box, but no part of the side and end *pieces*.

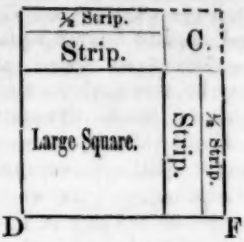
If we draw the line A B vertically across the middle of the end of the box, the whole end is divided into 2 equal squares; but taking away the shaded portions, it is evident that the end *piece* is not divided by this line into squares; since we have diminished each square of the end, in one direction, by twice the thickness of the plank, and in the other by only once its thickness.

To get two equal squares in the end *piece*, let there be marked off on each side of A B, by dotted lines, two strips, each as wide as the plank is thick. We may now suppose the *end* of the box, (not the end piece,) to be divided into, 1st, 2 large squares, E and E; 2d, 8 strips, each equal in length to the side of a *large square*, and in width to the thickness of the plank ($2\frac{1}{2}$ in.); and 3d, 8 small squares, each having its side equal in length to the thickness of the plank. Since the box is twice as wide as it is high, and twice as long as wide, the area of an end is doubled in a side, and quadrupled in the top or bottom. Then an end, a side, and the top or bottom, contain 7 times as many large squares, strips, and small squares as an end; that is, 14 large squares + 56 strips + 56 small squares; and both ends, both sides, and the top and bottom, or the whole external area of the box, = 28 large squares + 112 strips + 112 small squares.

But these exceed the area of the 6 *pieces* of which the box is made, by the strips and small squares in the edges of the top and bottom at the sides, and of the top, bottom, and sides at the ends. Referring to Fig. 3, and noticing that the strips marked off by dotted lines are part of the pieces in which they are found, and not to be deducted, we see that we must deduct, for each side, 8 strips and 16 small squares; and for an end, 6 strips and 8 small squares; or 28 strips and 48 small squares, for both sides and both ends. Subtracting these from the large squares, strips, and small squares of the whole external area of the box, we have 28 large squares + 84 strips + 64 small squares = the area of the 6 pieces = $22\frac{37}{72}$ sq. ft. = 3242 sq. in. From this, deduct the 64 small squares ($(2\frac{1}{2}$ in.$)^2 \times 64 = 400$ sq. in.) and we have 28 large squares + 84 strips = 3242 sq. in. − 400 sq. in. = 2842 sq. in. Divide by 28, and we find, 1 large square + 3 strips = $\frac{2842}{28}$ sq. in. = $\frac{203}{2}$ sq. in.

This large square and the three strips may be arranged as in Fig. 4; viz., a strip and a half on each of two adjacent sides of the *large square*. This will be an exact square if we fill out the corner C, which contains a square, each side of which is one and a half times the width of a *strip* ($2\frac{1}{2}$ in. $\times$ $1\frac{1}{2}$ $= \frac{15}{4}$ in.) Adding this small square ($(1\frac{1}{2}$ in.$)^2 = \frac{225}{16}$ sq. in.), we have $\frac{200}{2}$ sq. in. $+ \frac{225}{16}$ sq. in. $= \frac{1825}{16}$ sq. in. $=$ area of the square, Fig. 4, completed. Then, $\sqrt{\frac{1825}{16}}$ sq. in. $= \frac{43}{4}$ in. $=$ length of a side of the square, or the line D F.

Fig. 4.



Comparing this with Fig. 3, we see it wants half the thickness of the plank, ($2\frac{1}{2}$ in. $\div$ 2 $= 1\frac{1}{4}$ in.), of being the external height of the box. Then, $\frac{43}{4}$ in. $+ 1\frac{1}{4}$ in. $= \frac{48}{4}$ in. $= 12$ in. $=$ external height of the box; 12 in. $\times$ 2 $=$ 24 in. $=$ external width of the box, and 24 in. $\times$ 2 $=$ 48 in. $=$ external length of the box. Subtract from each of these dimensions twice the thickness of the plank, and we have 12 in. $-$ 5 in. $=$ 7 in. $=$ internal height of box; 24 in. $-$ 5 in. $=$ 19 in. $=$ internal width of the box; 48 in. $-$ 5 in. $=$ 43 in. $=$ internal length of the box, and the product of the internal dimensions $=$ 5719 cubic inches $=$ the contents of the box. S.

MESSRS. EDITORS: — The following is the method I have been accustomed to employ, in explaining the first of the examples for which you requested solutions: —

Having procured six square pieces of board of equal size, I show my scholars the only manner in which they can be put together to form a cubical box. This being done, I show them that there are two small corners that will need filling, in order that the box may be perfect; these corners are as large square as the board of which the box is made is thick. I also show them that each side of the box will be as much longer than the pieces of which it is made, as the thickness of the board from which they are taken. Having done this, I am ready for the solution of the question.

$49\frac{5}{8}$ sq. ft. $= 7146$ sq. in.; and (1·5 in.)$^2 \times 2 = 4{\cdot}5$ sq. in., required for the 2 small corners. Then, $7146 - 4{\cdot}5 = 7141{\cdot}5$, the area remaining for the six square pieces; and $7141{\cdot}5 \div 6 = 1190{\cdot}25$, area of one of these pieces. Then, $\sqrt{1190{\cdot}25} = 34{\cdot}5$ in., side of one piece; and $34{\cdot}5 + 1{\cdot}5 = 36$ in., length of one side of the box. J. M. L.

If a teacher wishes to solve these questions by arithmetical processes, let him not attempt to analyze them, but simply apply the Golden Rule of Double Position. It is manifest, in the first question, that 3 feet on the outside of a cube will give 54 feet of surface. From this subtract the edges of the top and bottom boards, 24 feet multiplied by $\frac{1}{8}$ of a foot, and it is reduced to 51 feet. Next subtract the ends of two sides, 11 feet multiplied by $\frac{1}{8}$, and it is reduced to $49\frac{5}{8}$ feet, which is the amount of board given; and my first "position," or guess, of three feet, is right. Can anything be more natural and simple?

Take the other box, whose dimensions are to be in the proportion of 1, 2, and 4. Suppose the smallest dimension to be one foot. Then the surface will be 28 feet. But from this subtract the edges of the larger sides, 24 feet multiplied by $\frac{5}{24}$ of a foot, and it is reduced to 23 feet. Subtract the four ends of the other two sides, each being seven inches by $2\frac{1}{2}$; that is, subtract 70 square inches, and it leaves, as the size of the boards, $22\frac{37}{72}$ feet; which is the amount given; and so the first position does not need correction. **

No. 1. — Divide the whole external surface of the box into 6 large squares, 24 strips, and 24 small squares, as in Fig. 1, above. Then, of the two strips that meet at each edge, one must be made by the thickness of the board, and should therefore be left out of account, as taking no part of the given surface of the board; and of the three small squares that meet at each corner, two must be made by the thickness of the board, and should be left out of account. There remain the 6 large squares, half the strips (=12), and one third of the small squares (=8). But 6 large squares, 12 strips, and 6 small squares, can be arranged as in Fig. 2, so as to compose 6 squares. These take up the whole given surface of the board, except so much as is required for the 2 small squares remaining, of which each side is equal to the thickness of the board, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. $= \frac{1}{8}$ ft. But $(\frac{1}{8}$ ft.$)^2 \times 2 = \frac{2}{64}$ sq. ft.; and $49\frac{5}{8} - \frac{2}{64} = 49\frac{38}{64}$. Then, $49\frac{38}{64} \div 6 = 8\frac{17}{64} = \frac{529}{64}$; and $\sqrt{\frac{529}{64}} = \frac{23}{8}$ ft., length of A B in Figure 2. But A B is shorter by the width of one strip, or $\frac{1}{8}$ ft., than a side of the box; and, therefore, $\frac{23}{8} + \frac{1}{8} = 3$ ft., Ans.

No. 2. — Divide the whole surface of the box into 28 large squares, 112 strips, and 112 small squares, as shown in Fig. 3, above, or explained in connection with it. Upon examination, it will be readily seen that 28 strips and 48 small squares must be left out of account, as made by the thickness of the plank. There remain the 28 large squares, 84 strips, and 64 small squares. But 1 large square, 3 strips, and $2\frac{1}{4}$ small squares, compose a square like that in Fig. 4, (since the corner C is evidently equal to $2\frac{1}{4}$ small squares); so that 28 of these composite squares take up the 28 large squares, the 84 strips, and 63 of the small squares; that is, the whole given surface of the plank, except what is required for 1 small square, $(2\frac{1}{2}$ in.$)^2 = 6\frac{1}{4}$ sq. in. But, $22\frac{37}{72}$ sq. ft. $= 3242$ sq. in.; and $3242 - 6\frac{1}{4} = 3235\frac{3}{4}$ sq. in., the contents of the 28 composite squares. Then, $3235\frac{3}{4} \div 28 = \frac{129\,43}{112} = \frac{1849}{16}$ sq. in., the contents of one composite square; and $\sqrt{\frac{1849}{16}} = 4\frac{3}{4}$ in., length of D F, which is shorter by the width of half a strip, or $1\frac{1}{4}$ in., than the external height of the box. Therefore, $4\frac{3}{4} + 1\frac{1}{4} = \frac{48}{4} = 12$ in., = external height of the box; 24 in. = external width; and 48 in. = external length. The internal dimensions are less by 5 inches, twice the thickness of the plank, than the corresponding external dimensions; that is, internal height = 7 in., width = 19 in., and length = 43 in. The product of these dimensions gives 5719 cubic inches, the contents of the box. X. Y.

In giving the solutions of X. Y., which do not differ essentially from those of S., we have adapted them to the Figures of S., to avoid a needless multiplication of wood-cuts. We find ourselves obliged, from want of room, to defer the various answers we have received to the remaining question proposed in January, till our next number.

QUESTIONS FOR SOLUTION.

Messrs. Editors: — One of my school-boys, who has a taste for mechanical pursuits, and who is now engaged in constructing a turning-lathe, brings me the following problems: —

[Question 1.] Given two fixed pulleys whose diameters are respectively 4 inches and 20 inches, and whose centres are 48 inches apart. Required the length of a band which shall pass tightly around the pulleys.

[Question 2.] If the diameter of the smaller pulley be increased to 6 inches, and the centres of the two pulleys remain at the same distance apart as before, what must be the diameter of the larger pulley, in order that the same band may be used as in the first case? D. B. H.

[Question 3.] I tried a freezing experiment the other day after the following manner. Taking a glass bulb with a long stem, I filled the bulb with water and placed it in a mixture of snow and salt. Gradually adding the mixture above, I covered the bulb; and after some minutes took it out, and found the water solid and the bulb unbroken. The water had risen in the stem several inches.

I afterwards tried the experiment, immersing the bulb wholly in the freezing mixture. The water rose to a less height than before; and on taking out the bulb, found the *upper half* filled with solid ice, while the lower half was shattered. What was the cause of the unfortunate result of the second experiment? A Reader.

[Question 4.] Why cannot the arithmetical questions answered in the present number be performed by the Rule of Position, unless we happen to be so fortunate as to guess the right answer?

[Question 5.] Let me now take my turn at playing Sphynx, and ask, Is it of material importance to have the school walls nearly directed to the cardinal points of the compass? I have a fancy that it is; that it materially assists a child if he can sit facing the north while studying a map; although for a country south of him, I should rather he should face south and hold the map upside down. At all events, let the house walls be, when practicable, nearly N. E. S. W. H.

[Question 6.] Given the diameter of a drum wheel, the distance between the centre of the drum and that of its pulley, and also the length of the band; to find the diameter of the pulley. T. S.

INTELLIGENCE AND MISCELLANY.

Reading Other People's Letters. — We know that our readers will thank us for allowing them to *peep* into the following letter from the accomplished authoress of the work on Physical Geography noticed in our last number. How many associations, from historic incident, ivy-clad ruins, and the tearful fiction of the Wizard of the North, cluster around the spot from which it is dated. — "Kenilworth, Warwickshire, 15th January, 1856. Sir: — Permit me to express my thanks to you for obligingly sending me a copy of your edition of my small work on Physical Geography. It gives me unfeigned satisfaction that this little volume should have been ushered into its new sphere in the United States, in so pleasing a form, and under the editorship of one who appears so fully to enter into and coöperate with my desire of rendering the subject conducive to the promotion of all that is beneficial to the rising generation; and allow me to assure you, that in speaking of the "rising generation," the term is by no means limited to this land, but also extends with a deep feeling of interest to that great people, our sister-land, so closely united to us by a common language, and in great measure, by a common descent. — With every good wish for the success of this little volume, I remain, sir, yours truly, Rosina M. Zornlin.

"W. L. Gage, Esq."

There is a voice within me —
And 't is so sweet a voice
That its soft lispings win me,
Till tears start to my eyes.
Deep from my soul it springeth,
Like hidden melody,
And ever more it singeth
This song of songs to me:
"This world is full of beauty,
As other Worlds above,
And if we did our duty,
It might be full of love." — *London Times.*

WESTFIELD NORMAL SCHOOL EXAMINATION. — The large crowd of persons who attended the exercises of this examination last week, testified by their presence to the deep interest felt by the community in this school. Under the superintendence and sound instruction of its present highly popular and experienced Principal, William H. Wells, and his able assistants, the school has attained to a degree of usefulness and prosperity hitherto unexampled in its history. When the Normal School House was built, ten years ago, the school was very small, and the house was considered by many larger than the school would ever need; butthe Normal Hall is now too small to accommodate the scholars, and the Legislature has been petitioned for aid to enlarge it. The members of the Legislative Committee, in their remarks, at the close of the examinations, promised their influence to procure the necessary State aid.

The examination was unusually interesting, and interspersed with extempore teaching exercises by the pupils, which added much to the interest of the occasion. The recitations were all excellent, manifesting great readiness and comprehension on the part of the pupils; faithful and systematic instruction on the part of the teachers. The occasion was one of rare interest to all concerned, and clearly demonstrated the usefulness and great excellence of Normal Schools, especially of the one located in our village. — *Westfield Newsletter.*

There are tones that will haunt us, though lonely
Our path be o'er mountain or sea;
There are looks that will part from us only
When memory ceases to be;
There are hopes which our burden can lighten,
Though toilsome and steep be the way;
And dreams that, like moonlight, can brighten
With a light that is clearer than day. — *Praed.*

GRAMMATICAL LOVE-MAKING. — [The following has fairly haunted us. It has thrown itself again and again in our way; and again and again we have closed our eyes, determined not to see it. But now, on opening a very proper-looking buff envelope, what should come forth but this, enclosed to us by one of our associate Editors as his contribution to our *olla podrida?* We yield; but throw on him the responsibility of its publication. If any harm comes from it, either to "gramer" or to "morils," he must answer for it.]

The Perils of Teaching Grammar to Young Damsels. — Mr. Editor, — I have been sendin' my darter Nancy to school to a schoolmaster in this naborhood. Last Friday I went over to the school just to see how Nancy was gittin' along, and I see's things I did 'nt like by no means. The schoolmaster was larnin' her things entirely out of the line of eddycation, and, as I think, improper. I set awhile in the school-house and heered one class say their lesson. They was a spellen, and I thot spelled quite exceedingly. Then cum Nancy's turn to say her lesson. She said it very spry. I was shockt! and determined she should leave that school. I have heered that gramer was an oncommon fine study, but I do 'nt want any more gramer about my house. The lesson that Nancy sed was nothin' but the foolishest kind uv talk, the ridiclest luv talk you ever did see. She got up, and the first word she said was, 'I love!' I looked rite at her hard for doing so improper, but she went rite on and sed, 'Thou lovest, he loves,' and I reckon you never heered such a riggermyrole in your life — love, love, love, and nothing but love. She said one time, 'I did love.'

Sez I, 'Who did you love?' Then the scholars laffed, but I wa 'nt to be put off, and I sed, 'Who did you love, Nancy? I want to know, who did you love?' The schoolmaster, Mr. McQuillister, put in, and said he would explain when Nancy finished the lesson. This sort of pacyfied me, and Nancy went on with awful love talk. It got wus and wus every word. She sed, 'I might, could, or would love.'

I stopped her again, and sed I reckon I would see about that, and told her to walk out of that house. The schoolmaster tried to interfere, but I

would 'nt let him say a word. He sed I was a fool, and I nockt him down and made him holler in short order. I taukt the strate thing to him. I told him ide show him how hede learn my darter gramer.

I got the Nabers together, and we went to Mr. M'Quillister and sent him off in a hurry, and I reckon tharl be no more gramer teechin' in these parts soon. If you know of any rather oldish man in your reegen that doant teech gramer, we wood be glad if you wood send him up. But in the footure we will be keerful how we employ men. Yong schoolmasters wont do, specially if they teeches gramer. It is a bad thing for morils.

Missouri Democrat.] Yours till deth, THOMAS JEFFERSON SOLE.

[A friend at our elbow suggests, that Miss Nancy ought to have commenced with the passive voice, "I am loved"; and that then the active, "I love", might have followed properly enough. Mr. Sole might have been then content; and the schoolmaster, paying this proper regard to *order*, that essential in every good school, might have kept his *standing* and place.

But seriously, it is time that the word "love" should be discarded from the place which it has so long unworthily held, in our grammars, as the paradigm or perfect model of regular verbs. It is not strictly regular in its form; it does not readily show to the young student the distinction between the root and the affix in grammatical forms; and, to say nothing of the mirth and blushes which it sometimes excites in the midst of a grave exercise, it owes its place not at all to its own merits, but simply to the fact that it is a translation of the Latin verb, *amo*, the study of the English grammar having been derived from that of the Latin. But though *amo*, the immemorial paradigm in the Latin grammar, is an admirable example of a verb perfectly regular in its structure, it has no power of transferring this grammatical excellence to words of like signification in other languages. And besides, according to old usage, it was so whipped into the learner's memory, that there was no danger of its becoming associated in his mind with any sentiments of *love*. It was a far more potent stimulant of the opposite passion.]

NORMAL SCHOOLS. — At the recent examinations of candidates for these schools, 16 were admitted at Framingham, 35 at Salem, and 32,— 7 gentlemen and 25 ladies,— at Bridgewater. The number of graduates who have returned to form advanced classes, is 15 at Salem, and 8 at Bridgewater, making the whole number in the Salem School 116, and in the Bridgewater School (in which there are this term only two undergraduate classes, the extension of the course from a year to a year and a half taking effect at this time) 75. The number in the Framingham School we have not learned. The term at Westfield begins too late in the month for us to receive intelligence from this school before going to press.

Miss Tefft, now Mrs. Munger, has resigned her situation as teacher in the Salem School; and is succeeded by Miss Phœbe A. Breed, of Lynn, and Miss Sarah R. Smith, of Marblehead, recent graduates of the School, — an increased number of teachers being desirable on account of the fourth class.

PLEASING INCIDENT. — One of our friends, a retired school teacher, having recently applied to one of his former pupils, to take some stock in a new Insurance Company, in which the former had an interest, was received with truly filial kindness by the other — now a successful and honorable young merchant — but who was unable to take any of the stock — circumstances having rendered it impracticable at that time; "but," said the merchant, putting a check for two hundred and fifty dollars into the veteran's hand, "take this, not as a *gift*, but in part payment of the debt I contracted to you as my teacher in days gone by. — *Transcript.*

DANGERS OF PRECOCITY. — Willie Herbert, youngest child of Mr. J. B. Berry of this city, died on Thursday last, aged thirteen months and nineteen days, being the fourth of the prize children at the exhibition in the Music Hall last fall that has since deceased. — *Boston Journal.*

PERSONAL. — Mr. HENRY W. TORREY, the successful teacher for many years of a young ladies' school in this city, but perhaps most widely known as the assistant editor of Leverett's Latin Lexicon, has been appointed Professor of History in Harvard College.

Rev. BRADFORD K. PIERCE has been elected Superintendent and Chaplain of the State Industrial School for Girls.

Rev. MOSES P. CASE has been unanimously elected Principal of the High School in Lynn.

The withdrawal of Messrs. OLIVER CARLTON, Principal of the Latin High School in Salem, LORING LOTHROP, Principal of the Girls' High and Normal School in Boston, and HENRY WILLIAMS, Jr., Principal of the Winthrop School in Boston, from public to establish private schools, will be regretted by many, who prefer public to private instruction, and will be welcomed by others, who prefer private to public. Mr. BATCHELDER has entered upon his duties as Principal of the combined High School in Salem. We copy from the Lynn News: "The festival in honor of Mr. JACOB BATCHELDER was held at Exchange Hall, on Wednesday evening. There were about five hundred and fifty persons present, mostly Mr. B.'s past and present pupils. Mr. Batchelder has spent about twenty-two years in teaching, in Lynn, during which time not less than twelve hundred different pupils have been under his charge. He leaves with the regrets not only of his pupils, but of the parents, and, indeed, of the whole community, to whom he has become endeared during his long residence among us."

The "Plymouth Rock" says that Rev. Adiel Harvey has been re-engaged as Superintendent of the Plymouth schools the ensuing year, at a salary of $1000.

BOOKKEEPING. — Sir Walter Scott, in lending a book one day to a friend, cautioned him to be punctual in returning it. "This is really necessary," said the poet, in apology, "for though many of my friends are bad *arithmeticians*, I observe almost all of them are good *bookkeepers*."

SPELLING. — A Western editor thinks that if the proper way of spelling tho is "though," and ate "eight," and boes "beaux," the proper way of spelling potatoes is "poughteighteaux."

PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE.

I can see that I grow older,
  And I note it day by day!
I can feel my heart grow colder
  As its pleasures pass away.
At the tell-tale glass I linger,
  As with faded eye I trace
Solemn tokens which Time's finger
  Has engraven on my face.

But one moment can restore me
  To my boyhood and my prime,
And sweet memories come o'er me
  Of that brief and blessed time;
Then I hear a father's blessing,
  And I feel a mother's kiss;
And again I am caressing
  One who shared with me my bliss.

Who shall say the Past must perish
  'Neath the Future's coming waves?
What the soul delights to cherish.
  From Oblivion's depths it saves!
Looking backward, on I'm gliding,
  Till I reach that final shore
Where the Present is abiding,
  And where Change shall come no more. —*Sel.*

APRIL, 1856.

EDITORIAL POSTSCRIPT.

As so many towns and districts are now forming plans for the erection of new school-houses or the refitting of old ones, it seemed to us that we should be inexcusable if we did not devote a considerable part of this number to the subject of School Architecture; that if, at this critical time, we omitted to warn against the mistakes and defects that are so prevalent in this department of school provision, and to suggest right principles and methods, both teachers and pupils, who would perhaps be sufferers in consequence year after year, might justly hold us responsible for the neglect. We have therefore done what we could,—with some special expense, and much special labor; and, for the sake of the great interests at stake, invite the earnest attention of our readers to the articles upon this subject. And if your towns or districts have any school-houses to build or repair, will you not circulate this number among your neighbors, especially those who may be upon building or repairing committees, and use all your influence that the work may be done aright?

But buildings are stubborn, unyielding things (hence the especial importance of their being well planned); and they impart some of this property to papers which treat of them. We regret that, on this account, we have been compelled to defer the insertion of some valuable contributions. We hope that our correspondents will have patience with us; and especially, that they will not suppose, because we happen to have a little more than enough for dinner to-day, that therefore we shall want no table spread for us to-morrow. Our anxiety to secure the best possible buildings in the future has also prevented us from showing that regard which we have designed and still hope to do, to the many spacious and beautiful school edifices which have been recently erected and dedicated.

Since the report of our Question Box was made out and in type, we have received from D. C. L. an answer to our first question, corresponding substantially with that of J. M. L.

"How beautiful is Snow. — Our brother of the R. I. Schoolmaster, so eminent for his editorial skill, asks in respect to the authorship of a poetic gem, commencing with these words. In copying it for the "Teacher" of last month, we inadvertently omitted to credit it to the "Lyric of the Golden Age," a poetical olio, communicated to us, as we are assured, by the spirits of Byron, Shelley, Pollok, &c., through the mediumship of Thomas L. Harris.

School Agency.—Those of our readers who wish, either to obtain situations as teachers, or to secure the services of teachers, will find in our advertising columns the announcement by Messrs. Robinson & Richardson, 119 Washington St., Boston, of an excellent plan devised by them for meeting the wants of these two classes, and subserving their mutual convenience and advantage. The want of an agency of this kind in Boston has been much felt.

Teachers' Institutes.—Four Institutes have been already definitely appointed for the Spring, to be held at the following places and times:—Dennis, March 24–28; Kingston, March 31–April 4; Marlboro', April 14–18; Ware, April 21–25. The exercises will commence on Monday morning of each week at 10 o'clock, and will continue through Friday evening. Though specially designed for teachers, they will be "open," we borrow from the Secretary's Circular, "to the friends of education generally," and, since teaching is, or should be, the "universal profession," cannot fail to contain much that will be of general interest. The Lecturers, according to the arrangements which have been made, will be the Secretary and two Agents of the Board of Education, and, in addition to these, Prof. Mason in Music, Prof. Russell in Reading and Elocution, Prof. Krüsi in Mathematics and Drawing, and Prof. Tenney in Geography and Natural Science. The usual hospitalities to eachers are tendered by the good people of the several towns.